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## CO-OPERATION IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION<sup>1</sup>

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In speaking of co-operation in administration it is perhaps unnecessary to state that I have in mind co-operation within a given system and not co-operation between different systems. There are two extreme types of school administration, the one mechanical in form and autocratic in process and practice, the other intelligent in form and co-operative in spirit and practice. We can better understand the latter, about which we are especially to speak, in contrast with the former. By the former type of administration I have in mind an organization in which everyone concerned, teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendent, has his own place and his own responsibility very definitely and carefully defined. Everyone, recognizing his own place and responsibility, tries to keep within it; everyone feels that he has a certain function to perform and he has the responsibility and the right to perform it as he sees fit, but that no one else who has another function has any right to interfere directly or indirectly by

<sup>1</sup>Delivered on July 20, 1918, as a lecture of the series offered to superintendents during Superintendents' Week at the University of Chicago.

suggestion or otherwise. In this mechanical and autocratic system any interference is taken as a personal matter, a personal affront, a personal criticism. The mechanical system is a personal, isolated system. It is made up of a number of unrelated units; it is an aggregation of people brought together to do, in accordance with the mechanical plan laid out, a certain piece of work. It is in sharp contrast with an intelligently organized system which is made up of a body of people brought together as an organism, if you please, inter-related and co-ordinated for the purpose of doing together a piece of vital work.

The contrasting spirit of two such extreme types of organization can perhaps be illustrated by the different methods of giving directions employed by the two types of administrators. "Do this; do it in this way," says the administrator in the mechanical system; or, if he is extremely liberal in his views, "Do it in any way you please, but do it." In contrast an administrator of the co-operative type would say, "Here is a piece of work to be done; we have it to do together; let us find out the best way to do it; as administrator it is my function to suggest; I suggest that it be done thus, but what do you suggest? Try it out and we will modify our way as experience indicates it should be modified." The teacher will be perfectly free to come to the superintendent and suggest that the plan of operation may be improved or even to improve it without any further conference.

The advantages, if there are advantages in the mechanical form of organization, are the apparent certainty and the accompanying feeling of certainty about the distribution of responsibility. Perhaps it is a human characteristic to want to know exactly what is expected of me and when a specific task is assigned I will faithfully perform my duties. The disadvantages are the disadvantages that come from isolation, from working alone, because that is what it really means.

We are forbidden to think of things that do not immediately concern us and we are not allowed to express our thoughts about things that do not concern us.

Mechanical organization, perhaps not always of the extreme type, is in my experience the prevalent organization, at least in large school systems and very often in small school systems. There are those who maintain that in a large system it is impossible to carry out a plan of education in any other way. Much as they may deplore the fact and the unfortunate results, they are convinced that it is impossible to do otherwise. But I have never yet seen a system organized in that way with the most complete and comprehensive and clearcut plan imaginable that was really efficient in operation. There are always parts of the work and responsibilities for work to be done that fall between various persons, resulting in omissions and evasions and in the shifting of responsibilities from one to another. Very important matters are often neglected, because no one can be found who will acknowledge responsibility for them.

On the other hand, the system which I have designated as the intelligent-co-operative system is just the reverse. The advantages of such a system are numerous. First, it tends to the development of high morale throughout the system. We are hearing a good deal in these days about the importance of morale in our industrial and civic life and we are noting the steps taken to produce morale. It means common knowledge about certain things, common ideals, and common purposes. To get people working enthusiastically together is the process of producing morale. At the same time, such working and feeling and thinking together give everyone concerned the feeling of strength that comes from the consciousness that, little as one's power may be, it represents and is in collaboration with the powers of large numbers of others working for the same end.

The second advantage of the co-operative type of organization is that it tends to make available for use the wealth of experience, of knowledge, of inspiration and ideals, represented by the whole teaching force. There is no greater loss anywhere in our educational work than the loss that results from the failure to capitalize the knowledge and experience of all the people in the profession—something that cannot be done under the mechanical system. Every administrative measure has at least two phases; it is seen from two standpoints: from the standpoint of the administrator who may work it out in accordance with the best light and judgment that he has and from the standpoint of those who have to be administered, of those who have to carry it out in detail. The standpoint of both is valuable, important, essential to the working out of any plan of administration or organization. Every plan of organization, of administration, should be formulated and reformulated whenever necessary in the light of the knowledge and judgment of everyone concerned, not simply of those charged primarily with the responsibility for administration, but equally of those who are charged with carrying out administrative measures.

Thirdly, this type of administration furtheres the professional education and progress of everyone concerned. This statement hardly needs any elaboration. The whole field of education is open for thought or observation, for discussion and suggestion. One is not limited to the particular place in which he primarily does his work. One is not limited to the school room. One has a right, an obligation, from his own standpoint to think and to pass judgment, and to make his judgment known, concerning any phase of the school system.

There are some cautions to be observed in attempting to carry on school administration in this free, co-operative fashion. It is more difficult to carry on the co-operative form



of administration than the mechanical form, just as it is vastly more difficult for teachers to carry out some plan of pupil self-government than it is to control by the usual disciplinary measures. Here are some of the cautions which must be observed in such a system. Ultimate responsibility for all activities should be as definitely placed and as fully assumed as in the mechanical-autocratic type of administration. That is, we should know, after all the discussion and conference and co-operation and helpfulness possible to be brought to bear on any problem, who is ultimately and primarily responsible for carrying on the work. The administration must be rigidly impersonal. The best interests of the work to be done must be the universal standard of procedure. Everyone concerned must be willing to have his actions tested and judged by this standard. It ought to be so under all systems, but it is peculiarly important under a system of co-operation that it should be rigidly impersonal. I think the greatest obstacle to professional progress is the almost universal failure to look upon our work objectively rather than as a personal matter.

What shall be the machinery of an intelligent-co-operative type of administration? Let me point out that the machinery is merely a means to an end. The important element of the situation is the co-operative spirit and purpose which are universally indispensable. That is, there must be the feeling and the desire to work together, to help one another, to perform one's own part for which one is fundamentally, ultimately responsible in such a way as to help everyone else in the performance of his particular function. As I have said, to have a co-operative system of organization work ideally, everyone must look objectively at the work. When we get into that spirit we shall welcome help from anyone rather than take it as a personal criticism if the suggestion is made that we might do it better. In other words, we

should play the whole game in the open. Why should the principal or the superintendent hesitate a moment to declare his full intention, the full extent of his knowledge and purpose, to everyone concerned? Why should he hesitate to introduce and invite suggestions and criticisms? I put myself in a perfectly impregnable position if I take an impersonal attitude. Under those conditions nothing can be said against my purposes. What I am aiming at is the best possible plan of organization and I want to find it whatever its source. It is a delicate matter to develop the right attitude on the part of members of a school system, because we are all so habituated to taking suggestions which come from people who have not the same responsibility as we have as meddling, as critical of our particular functions and of our success in discharging them. All concerned in co-operation should take the attitude at the outset of welcoming suggestions and of being grateful for them. If this can be done, we remove the element of fear and establish a spirit of confidence.

What is the best method of securing this spirit of objective co-operation? I do not know. I do not know that any machinery is necessary in a small school system. It is easily possible to produce the right atmosphere in a school system which is small enough so that everyone knows everybody else, where any group of teachers can readily be called together for conference on matters of general concern. But if no special machinery is necessary to carry on a co-operative form of administration in a small school system, the situation is different in a large school system where it is impossible for anyone to know all concerned, where those involved in the system come together so seldom that it is impossible for even those in prominent positions to get the point of view of the main body of the workers. In large systems it is absolutely necessary in my judgment to have some form of organization

that you may call machinery if you please as a means of getting the results toward which we are aiming.

The only plan that I know of which has been tried is that of organizing some form of educational council or teachers' council. Such councils have been organized in Chicago, New York, Boston, Los Angeles, Portland, and other cities. I am not going to make any attempt to speak about those, because I know them mainly only from hearsay. Only one suggestion, a weakness in all of them without exception, I think, is this, that the representatives in their councils are not representatives of the school system as a whole, but are representatives of groups of people, such as the grade school teachers, the high school teachers, the principals, or what not. Very often in order to be represented one must be a member of some purely voluntary organization. I believe a council should represent everyone in the system. At least in theory everyone in the system should have a choice in the representative to the council without belonging to any voluntary, organized group. //

I want to speak a little more at length about the councils in Minneapolis and Cleveland, because I have known them intimately and have had something to do with their organization. They represent concretely the best procedure of which I have intimate knowledge and the best results, although I will not paint the results all in rosy colors, because I think I see some weaknesses that might be corrected.

The council in Minneapolis was organized nearly four years ago, in 1914. I found on going to Minneapolis—it was the first really large system with which I had anything to do as superintendent—that I was confronted with difficulty in my effort to become acquainted with a large corps, some fifteen or sixteen hundred teachers, principals, and so on, promptly enough to be able to appreciate the point of view, to appreciate the difficulties throughout the system, and to

see from the standpoint of teachers and principals any measures that might be proposed either by them or by myself for the reorganization of the system. I was casting about in my mind for some means through which I might come into closer professional contact with the people of that system when I discovered that a year or two before the teachers themselves had requested the formation of a council, in fact, had placed before the Board of Education a petition that a council of teachers should be formed. It was to be organized by voluntary groups of teachers, by the teachers' club and the grade teachers' association, and so on. The petition had been shelved or pigeonholed. Since the beginning had been made in that way, the initiative having been taken by the teachers themselves, it seemed like a good plan to take up anew the proposal made in the petition.

As a result there was worked out an educational council for the city of Minneapolis with twenty-five members representing all the teachers, principals, and supervisors in the system on a basis not exactly numerical, but something like that. There happened to be five high-school districts in the city. Each high school was represented by one teacher. The kindergarten and first two grades had one representative, the third, fourth, and fifth grades had one, and the sixth, seventh, and eighth another. There were two representatives for the special teachers and two representatives of the elementary principals and one high-school principal. I have not accounted for the full number, which was twenty-five, but I have indicated the character of the representation.

There was a constitution which was drawn up by the committees that formulated the plan. This was finally submitted to the whole teaching body and adopted by them. The council met regularly twice a year in accordance with that constitution, but as a matter of fact it held many special meetings and considered all kinds of matters. It took up

problems relating to the curriculum. It often took up petty complaints from teachers and in a very short time the fullest discussion and the frankest expression of opinion and experience were developed, much to the advantage of the council and especially to the advantage of the administrative officials of the city, because on invitation the assistant superintendents as well as the superintendent were usually present at these meetings.

It was interesting to note that in many cases the most critical and aggressive members of a given group were chosen for the council. One heard the statement that the group wanted someone who would fight for them. This was fortunate in one respect; it insured the presentation of the most diverse views, of the most critical views of the administration and the administration's procedure. So much was expected of these ultra-radicals that in a short time criticism was heard of the council, because the council was not doing anything for the teachers. The fact of the matter was that when we sat down around a table and talked things over frankly there was not very much difference of opinion; after all of us had shown our hands frankly and expressed ourselves freely we came to substantial agreement. Indeed, the weakness of that council was that its members did not always keep sufficiently in touch with their constituency. That is why the criticism developed; the constituency, not having the same opportunity that the members of the council had to understand every problem that came up from every standpoint, could not appreciate the real situation and thought that the members of the council were doing nothing for them.

The Cleveland council was organized in a little different way. There had been no effort at organizing a council in Cleveland, so I had to initiate the suggestion there myself. This I did at once when I went there and the council was worked out almost entirely by the teachers themselves. I suggested as

the most democratic method the plan that every school—there are something over one hundred—nominate one member, and from this full list a long ballot of one hundred twenty names was prepared and printed and sent throughout the whole system and every teacher marked twenty names. After the votes were collected and counted the twenty who had the highest number of votes constituted the preliminary committee. The matter was from the first in the hands of the representatives of the teachers. The preliminary committee formulated a constitution which was submitted to the teachers and was accepted almost unanimously. The constitution provided for the election of a permanent council, which in this case numbered twenty-six and was chosen almost on the basis of a mathematical computation. The constitution provides for two meetings per year in the second month of each semester. As a matter of fact, this organization, which finally was ready for its first meeting in February, held six most interesting and prolonged meetings during the year and proved to be a most helpful body to the administration. The members of this organization also profited very greatly from the meetings. Many expressions of surprise came to me from them after the first meetings that there was so much about the schools and school administration that they never dreamed of before. The same criticism, however, developed that had arisen in Minneapolis. Representatives did not keep in touch with their constituency. They realized this fact and at the end of the year tried to redeem the situation. Everything was going on so well that I think the tendency was to forget the people that they represented and, of course, the people that they represented were not so enlightened as they should have been, although a report by the secretary was sent out after every meeting. Something further than a report seems to be necessary, however.

I want to take up a few concrete illustrations of co-operation in schools. I think these will help us to see more clearly what

the real distinction is between the mechanical form of organization and the co-operative form of organization, and they may possibly serve to convince us of the advantages of the type of administration which I am advocating.

Co-operation is possible and desirable in the formulation of salary schedules. It so happened in both of these cities that it was important, as it seemed to me, to formulate new salary schedules just as soon as possible. The new schedules were therefore formulated in both cases before the councils had come into existence. If they had been in existence, the salary matter was one very important matter which would have been taken up with them. However, I came as near to it as I could through meeting in Minneapolis all the high school principals and a large body of the teachers and presenting to them the tentative plans for revised salary schedules and getting their points of view. In Cleveland I did very much the same thing. I there had the advantage of the preliminary committee, which was referred to a moment ago and, as it represented all the teachers, I asked its members to serve in the capacity in which I should have asked the council to serve if it had been in existence. I got very complete plans from the committee of the high school teachers, but not from the others. In the absence of proposals from them I presented plans which were then revised in keeping with their suggestions.

The high school principals elected of their own initiative their representative committee. They saw the deputy superintendent about their desires. They thought that their salary schedule should be increased very materially and under his encouragement decided they would send a small representative committee of their larger committee to see the superintendent. I tried to welcome them with as much cordiality as was possible, because I was really very glad indeed to see them. We had a long conference on the subject; they left their petition in my hands; I told them plainly that under the financial



conditions which seemed to exist at the time we should have very little, if any, money for increasing the salaries of high school principals, that in my judgment the high school salary schedule was comparatively higher than the grade schedule even after the increases which we could give to grade teachers. They at least respected that judgment, although it was not, of course, very pleasing. After the salary schedule had been adopted for the elementary schools I called together the whole committee to talk over a salary schedule which it had been decided should be arranged for the high schools. I wanted particularly to revise those schedules, because they were entirely inadequate, entirely unsuited to securing and holding the best service in the system and to rewarding efficiency in service. We had a very frank talk together. They insisted that they should have at least an advance that would amount to more than twice as much as the funds available would permit, but I was able to get them to look at the whole field. I said, "Here is the whole situation," and so on, and explained it to them. With one exception they all agreed that, looking at the whole field, there was really no justification in their demand. I said to them that the only condition under which I could see my way clear to recommend a salary schedule to give them the total increase for which they had asked would be to recommend at the same time the increasing of grade teachers, because it seemed to me that in any case their salaries would be proportionately higher than the salaries of the grade teachers. Fortunately it did develop that we had more funds than we expected, which was very unusual. It usually turns out that we are disappointed, but through an unexpectedly large increase in the valuation of the city, which had not been finally determined at the time I was having this conference, we had a considerable fund, about \$150,000 more than we had expected. We were then able to be exactly consistent and do what we wanted to do. We at once recommended a schedule that gave \$100,000

more to the grade teachers and were then able to add to the high school schedule as well. At every step there was the utmost frankness and freedom of discussion. I purposely concealed nothing from those who were interested, because I wanted them to conceal nothing in their attitude from me.

Another illustration of the administration of the salary schedules at Minneapolis and Cleveland can be drawn from a reference to the merit plan, which was the basis of all advances in both systems. Both schedules were merit schedules. While the merit requirement was submitted frankly and was fully discussed, I must say that I do not think it was accepted or approved. Most teachers were opposed and frankly said so. The objection of teachers to the merit plan was expressed by a superintendent who said, "Half the teachers are afraid that the judgment of their merits won't be just and the other half are afraid that the judgment of their merits will be just." There is an element of truth in that. You may ask why salary schedules with the merit element of administration were adopted if the majority were opposed. Co-operation does not mean that the administrative officers are going to do exactly what those administered wish to have done, even though they are unanimous in it. It was stated at both of these councils at the very outset that the formation of the council was purely advisory, that the council was not to administer the schools, that that was the responsibility of the superintendent, that under the existing form of organization the superintendent cannot divest himself of his responsibility. It was clearly understood that the superintendent might feel it necessary in carrying out his responsibility according to his best judgment to act absolutely in opposition to the recommendations and desires of the council. It should be understood by the council and the whole teaching force and the superintendent as well that he has a final and ultimate responsibility which he cannot dodge. I have no right to take a course that is against my best judgment, even

if the whole school system believes in a course which I cannot approve. I may be very much influenced by the fact that my judgment is in opposition to the judgment of all others to the extent that I do not pursue the course that I otherwise would, but I am responsible, nevertheless, for the course that I do advocate and have carried out. So this matter of the administration of the merit system was taken up frankly with the council. "We have a merit system," I said. "I know that you don't all accept it, but it has been adopted and it must be carried out. It is the responsibility in large measure of the superintendent and his associates to see that it is carried out in accordance with its spirit."

We had lots of suggestions, among others one that the interests of the teachers should be safeguarded, particularly those that might be unjustifiably discharged. It was urged that there be a committee of teachers to pass upon the merits of individual teachers. I raised the question of how such a committee would act. We discussed the matter for an hour or two. Finally they came to the unanimous conclusion that the teachers did not want to shoulder that responsibility; that, in fact, a committee of teachers which had time enough to investigate properly all teachers would remove themselves from the category of teachers and become something else, virtually supervisors.

The failure of the Minneapolis council to keep their constituency sufficiently informed led that constituency to feel that they were not being adequately represented; so, inasmuch as a considerable number of teachers were eliminated in one way and another from the system, the teachers felt that the council had been negligent. Some of the teachers immediately concerned felt that they were not being represented, so one day one of the organizations of teachers appointed a committee to look out for the interests and rights of teachers who were being eliminated from the system. The

committee was appointed on the motion of an intimate friend of a teacher who had not been reappointed. The teacher who had not been reappointed had a wide reputation in the system and had used every possible influence to have this committee created. It was appointed for the general purpose of looking out for the interests of teachers, but for the particular purpose of looking out for the interest of this particular teacher. Immediately when I heard about the appointment of this committee I asked the chairman to come to my office. Was it my purpose to berate that chairman? Not at all. I sent for that chairman to say that I welcomed most heartily the action that the teachers had taken; nothing could please me more. We had had some difficult cases to deal with, I wanted all the help I could get, and if they could give me any light they would have my everlasting blessing. Somewhat to the surprise of the chairman, I think, I talked over this matter with him and sought his assistance. In their own way they investigated this case and another case. They spent a long time investigating and sending questionnaires and we got an immense amount of data. We took the precaution of getting a written statement from the two teachers concerned that they approved of the investigation by this committee. The result was that every one of that committee finally stated that there was absolutely nothing to be said in defense of the teachers concerned. That is a concrete illustration of what good co-operation means and what an opposite course might mean. The other illustrations that I might give here would be of a similar nature. My experience has confirmed me in my confidence in co-operative administration. I believe we ought to welcome it; we ought to get together and study methods and means by which we may all profit by this growing desire to work together for the best things.

## LIBERAL EDUCATION WITHOUT LATIN<sup>1</sup>

DAVID SNEDDEN  
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Let us, with something of the resolution with which we are now meeting the stern realities of war, also recognize that as a people we are deficient in the standards and attainments of liberal education as these are required to live up to the position and responsibilities which are sure to be ours in the twentieth century, as a result of this war; that ours is a conspicuously superficial culture; and that our ideals and our insight, where the genuine humanities of our day are involved, are in many essential respects lacking in depth and sincerity, and especially in the qualities of reality. As certainly as we watched from a distance the present storm mount and finally sweep us into its depths while we trembled in apprehension and irresolution, so certainly shall we again and again find ourselves in the near future unready to meet the new world problems that are inevitably to confront us. We are seriously unprepared for our coming part in diplomacy, interchange of knowledge, and the promotion of constructive programs making for international co-operation and friendliness.

How many among us can use a foreign language with precision and effect? To whom shall we look when we seek spokesmen to the Japanese, the Russians, the Chinese and the Brazilians? How few and how meagrely read are the books and journals that speak to our people of the profounder stir-

<sup>1</sup> Substance of presentation made by affirmative in a debate in Philadelphia on April, 25, 1918, before the American Society for University Extension Teaching, between Dean Andrew F. West of the Graduate School of Princeton University (negative) and Professor David Snedden of Teachers College, Columbia University (affirmative) on the question: **RESOLVED:** *That Latin should not be required, either for entrance or in college, for any Bachelor's degree in liberal studies.*

rings of government, social policy and economic enterprise in those lands whose destinies are sure yet to be interwoven with our own! How little in any genuine sense do we yet appreciate the extent and character of the transformations even now steadily and rapidly taking place in the very soil from which spring those plants that we call art, literature, culture, religion, and democracy, because of contemporary diffusion and deepening of scientific spirit and method!

And yet in some respects we are the most extensively taught people in the world. In the public and private high schools of the United States are found today many hundreds of thousands of our most gifted and most ambitious boys and girls between fourteen and eighteen years of age. Our numerous colleges, founded close upon the heels of settlement in all our states, and especially colleges making no pretensions as to offerings of special vocational training, have long been crowded with young men and women, the finest products of our blended and prosperous people. America has not stinted in providing for aspiring youth the means of culture as that has been understood. In no other country has so large a proportion of young men and women been given the opportunities and incentives for all those studies which supposedly make for informing the mind and enriching the spirit—in other words, for humanism. Certainly, we can hardly rebuke ourselves for indifference, for deficiency of high intent, or for niggardliness of support in matters of what we believed to be liberal education. And it is just as certain, notwithstanding frequent allegations to the contrary, that the large majority of the hundreds of thousands of youth constantly seeking our higher schools and colleges, are not in quest, only, or even chiefly, of the education which they can turn to immediate practical advantage—in the narrowly utilitarian sense.

Nevertheless, in spite of good intentions and an abundant provision of material means, our agencies of liberal education

have, I believe, conspicuously failed to meet the needs of our nation in this age. They have left us in a state of intellectual and spiritual unpreparedness. Why? Largely, I contend, because those to whom we have entrusted the direction of our institutions of higher learning have had no adequate understanding of the meaning and character of liberal education as that must be developed for the needs of a dynamic civilization expanding and deepening into the twentieth century, a civilization carrying along growing aspirations for democracy, for harmony among peoples, and for profounder understanding of the essential things of the present and the future. At a time when all the vital elements of political, religious, economic and cultural life were being reshaped by forces of incomprehensible magnitude and complexity, many of our strongest educational leaders have continued to prostrate themselves before decaying shrines of the past. With good intentions, but bad performance, they have, in the name of an unsound psychology and a false pedagogy, constituted themselves the voluntary defenders of a static social order. With eyes aloof and minds closed to the realities of present and future, they have ever tried to hold the thoughts and aspirations of their disciples to the departed glories of a Greece or a Rome, to the culture of a thirteenth or sixteenth century, on the assumption that these, and these chiefly, exemplify the high and noble things of spirit and mind which should be the foundation of all fine learning suited to a modern world.

For generations, and almost unto yesterday, they caused the dead hands of Latin, Greek and mathematics to hold in leash and often to paralyze the aspirations of our youth to share in the appreciation, and perhaps to aid in the creation, of cultural products significant of our New World character and opportunities. Millions of American boys and girls, the best of our stock and of our democratic social life, have come gladly up to our schools, naively seeking the bread that would nurture



them in the idealism and achievement of modern America; and to them has been given—what? Shreds and scraps of two complex ancient languages that were never to become really intelligible to most of them, and could not, in the very nature of the case, become more than slightly intelligible, except to a very few, and which were destined to be, in ninety-nine cases out of every hundred, almost completely forgotten within ten years of the closing of school life. Accompanying the prescribed and often meaningless studies of the grammar and composition of these languages, were also studies, hardly less pitiful, of classical texts, to the elucidation of which the less scrupulous students have helped themselves by the ever-ready interlinear. Hundreds of thousands of our youth have toiled reluctantly line by line through the *Anabasis* and millions have painfully translated Caesar's *Commentaries*—splendid bits of composition in themselves, but about as significant to the realities of a nineteenth or twentieth century as bows and arrows would be in modern warfare, or Roman galleys in the naval contests of tomorrow. Our educational conservatives have been industriously trying to gather figs of liberal education from the thistles of the classics. They have turned their eyes so constantly backward that they have themselves eventually become incapable of seeing clearly the realities of present and future. They have never learned that the twentieth century was eventually due in education as it was obviously arriving in science, economic achievement, social economy, medicine, engineering, and agriculture.

It was inevitable, of course, that as America found itself politically, economically, and socially, it should try to free itself of the obviously useless trammels of the past. Classical studies in schools and colleges have therefore become more and more vestigial. Boys and girls by hundreds of thousands, and usually those of superior ability and home environment, still elect the skeletonized Latin offered in public high schools,

because of the possibility that they may want to attend those strong, endowed institutions whose social connections, wealth and historic strength enable them long to resist the modernizing influences to which institutions more closely in touch with the spirit of the age and more responsive to the will of democracy have in part yielded. Almost universally in our private schools, and still quite generally in our public schools, American youth study and recite in perfunctory spirit the meaningless rituals of Latin Grammar and Roman classic. But there rarely results any genuine interest in either the ancient language or its so-called literature. The wholesome common-sense characteristic of Americans soon asserts itself. Half contemptuous, half tolerant, and wholly uninterested, and an easy victim to the dishonesty of the "pony," the boy passes his antiquated tests for admission to the college whose social opportunities mean so much to him. He promptly relegates to the lumber-room of his mind the broken antiques with which misguided teachers have tried to equip him. The colleges (a steadily diminishing number, however) having exacted the ancient ceremonial observance, now usually permit the youth to proceed in freer ways towards his degree.

But if the study of Latin has degenerated to the vestigial position here indicated, why the strong opposition manifested against it on the part of those who call themselves liberals in secondary and college education? The exactions of time and energy imposed by the stated amounts of Latin now required by even our more conservative institutions do not seem excessive. A minimum of from one to two thousand hours of study and recitation given out of the lifetime of an individual to an enterprise of learning with such honorable antecedents (in former centuries) as the study of Latin surely seems no great sacrifice. The college admission requirement against which we inveigh rarely demands more than one-fourth of the learner's time through a four-year secondary school course.

It ought to be obvious that, in the main, the motives of those who seek to remove Latin from the list of the specific prescriptions required for any high school course, or for candidacy for any liberal arts degree are not founded on mere prejudice or utilitarianism. It is, of course, an easily made charge that the so-called opponents of Latin—who are in reality only opponents of the monopolistic position accorded at present to Latin—are interested only in bread-and-butter education, that they are lacking in devotion to the ideals of culture, that they are infected with the anarchistic spirit of the age which would cut loose from the moorings of established institutions and inherited traditions.

It is not part of my present purpose to reply to these criticisms. However well founded they may be in the case of a few opponents of Latin, they do not apply to the many students of education whose attitudes have been formed only as a result of extensive comparative study of the possible and desirable objectives of all advanced instruction and training.

Those of us who disapprove the present protected position of Latin as a secondary school study, a position made possible only by the requirements imposed by powerful institutions of higher learning, do so for the very fundamental reasons, that, in the first place, the insistent repeated allegations as to the educational values of Latin as now taught, are in fact, without demonstrated validity, and, that, in the second place, Latin, as an artificially protected study, stands as one pronounced barrier to the development of truly effective liberal education suited to the genius of the American people and to the needs of a twentieth century democracy. We contend that to give any study in a system of liberal education a sacrosanct and artificially protected place on half mystical and wholly traditional grounds, is to corrupt the sources, and to invalidate the methods, of all true liberal education from the outset. The values pretended to be found in the study of Latin impress the

scientific person who thinks in terms of present and future results as being like the meaningless mummeries and symbols of religious rituals that have long outlived the period of their vitality. These alleged values rest actually in part on old customs of little present worth, in part on mere stubborn devotion to the ancient for its own sake, and in part on the rewards always to be won by clever exploiters of the credulity of those whose faiths are easily enlisted in the ultra-modern or ultra-antique.

What curious defenses are still conjured up in defense of the classical studies and especially on behalf of that clinging "dead hand" study, Latin! All educators of any breadth of view appreciate the unequalled importance of the "humanities," those studies designed to lead the minds and spirits of our growing youth to apprehend the things that have fine and big messages of human possibilities and achievement. In a broad and real sense the "humanities" are always to be cherished as vital studies in any plan of liberal education. But are we to delude ourselves into thinking that the slow and perfunctory dissection of a few classical works of literature, produced by great minds that lived in regions and times the thoughts, feelings, and aspirations of which are almost inconceivably far removed from ours, could serve, except in one possible instance in a thousand, to produce the kinds of insight and appreciation that are properly to be begotten of those studies which we may sincerely call the humanities?

Again, we are solemnly assured that through the study of these ancient languages and the few easily available examples of their literatures, there is produced a kind of magic mental discipline, a unique kind of sharpening of the mental faculties, not to be found in studies of other languages or literatures, nor in other subjects based on the realities of our own day and generation. As if the living gymnastics of mind were not best to be secured through those activities of mental and spiritual

apprehension and action which come from strong efforts to possess and to control the realities of habit, knowledge, and ideal that have worth for today and for tomorrow!

We are told, too, in words of well simulated profundity, that contemporary civilization has its roots in the old civilizations which flourished in the Italian and Grecian peninsulas, and that it is through study of the surviving desiccated examples of those cultures that our youth are best able to gain access to the more complex cultures of our own times. As if any sound system of pedagogy should or could have the unformed mind make its first essays in fields that are so remote in time and place as still to be largely unintelligible!

We are also assured that some knowledge of Latin is essential to the mastery of English or of a modern foreign language. But here again, we are given no evidence that makes allowance for the great selective forces operating in schools as heretofore conducted. Many a self-educated Lincoln or Walt Whitman has given us fine virile English; and certainly thousands who have made good records in Latin and Greek have later given us English that is but as hollow brass and tinkling cymbal. We know too little yet of the psychology of good language training to speak with confidence of these matters. If, as a partial result of the numberless hours given by our youth to the study of the classics since colonial days, we could point to prevalent forceful and fine vernacular usage as one accomplishment, and to some real mastery of modern foreign tongues as another, there would at least be ground for shifting the burden of proof to the opponents of the monopolies long accorded to Latin and Greek and still held by Latin. But, in reality, we exhibit among our college-educated classes no such achievements that are not equally to be attributed to the superior home environments and to the opportunities and exactions of the social positions of these more favored groups. Any critical analysis, even in the light of our present uncertain educational

science, of the valuable objectives and useful methods of language training, either in the vernacular or in a foreign tongue, must always strengthen the convictions of common sense that direct investment of available time and energy in the positive and specific pursuit of the actual ends we desire is the best investment we can make.

Finally, we are told that students who elect Latin in our schools reveal themselves later as having better minds than those who do not take Latin, and that as men and women they succeed better along almost all lines. But to those who realize the forces of selection always operative among parents and even among children themselves, the inferences usually drawn from these facts represent the baldest kind of reasoning "*post hoc ergo propter hoc*." There is much evidence indeed that heretofore, and even yet, pupils electing courses containing Latin are natively superior to those who do not make such elections. Parents aspiring after the best for their children do not set themselves up as experts in determining values of studies. Naturally, they accept the judgments of the higher institutions, and, in matters in which confessedly they have little knowledge, they prefer to abide by respected custom and tradition. But there exists as yet no available evidence to show that, even in mental powers, as judged by ordinary standards, the superior students found in Latin owe their superiority to their Latin studies.

It is not here contended, of course, that other secondary school studies, as now administered, give results superior to Latin. Practically, viewed from the standpoint of the needs of our age, our entire program of secondary education has been stricken with the blight of blind traditionalism and formalism. Mathematics, the one other subject apart from English that enjoys a monopolistic position like that held by Latin, supplies to most of the girls and to many of the boys obliged to study it, probably nothing more substantial than intellectual husks.

French and German, as now taught, are, when judged by the standards of interest and mastery that should characterize a truly liberal education, largely cultural shams. High school sciences, long ago placed under the bondage of a pedagogy derived from a now obsolete theory of mental faculties, have become bankrupt as means of giving genuine appreciation and insight to the mind that must interpret well or ill the scientific social inheritance of the 19th century. Even history and English literature, largely because of faulty aims and method have so far failed to yield to our millions of youth the riches of humanistic vision and sentiment which ought certainly to be derived from these studies when pursued under right conditions.

What we now need is someone to speak to us with the voice of a trumpet the message which seems long ago to have been heard by young Athenians—that has everywhere been heard by generous youth destined to add to the spiritual possessions of their age—namely that as a strong people, our best opportunities to develop new strength, to do creative work, are here and now. We must learn to build for today and the future, and to turn to the past only when, in any given case, we shall have planted our feet firmly on the rock of the living present and the nascent tomorrow. Let us as a nation take due pride in the achievements of our forefathers and ourselves, and at the same time earnestly resolve yet farther to enrich humanity by our efforts.

America's contributions already made to the social inheritance of the modern world are neither meagre nor unimportant. Our democratic ideals of government and social life, our scientific mastery of economic forces, our steadily forming conceptions of community well-being—these constitute social assets fundamental to all other forms of social evolution and in all of these we have played our part as explorers, inventors and master builders.



It is now our opportunity and our obligation so to organize existing educational and other agencies of culture that here too the American people may be strong and creative. The feet of many of our gifted young men and women, given right incentive, can be turned into the paths of humanistic leadership just as certainly as were those of creative men and women in the virile and forward looking epochs of the past.

But to achieve these results we must develop in the fields of liberal education the conditions which have made the American people originators in the spheres of politics, mechanical invention, and business organization. We must cease to make ourselves dependent on the past, except as we perceive its possible service to present and future. We must encourage our youth during their plastic years to look about them and forward in the world of vital realities for objectives, and to look within themselves for incentives to action. They must learn to adapt with caution, and not at all flatly to imitate the work of those who lived under conditions very unlike those which prevail today. They must learn that we live in an age as unlike those of Athens or Rome or 15th century Florence, as are the topography and climate of the Mediterranean shores unlike the great geographic reaches and tremendous meteorological alternations of our own continent.

The great war more than ever impresses upon us as a people that if we are to fulfill our destiny, we must cultivate originality. We must in every possible way seek out the inventive spirit among us and give to that endless varieties of encouragement and positive incentive. We must cease to be worshippers of *temporis acti*. Our Golden Age lies in the future and in prospecting our way towards it, we can, when we are sufficiently mature, and in exceptional instances, borrow even from the records of the journeyings of Xenophon or the quests of Ulysses. But we must borrow with restraint and discretion; otherwise, our aspiring youth will become bemired in the accretions of ancient history.

The intellectual and spiritual assets wherewith the American people have entered the twentieth century have certainly never been equalled. Our economic control of nature has made us by far the wealthiest of nations in point of material resources, and these constitute the essential foundations, if we use them rightly, for the leisure, the appreciation and the education through which less tangible values are to be realized. Our one hundred million people constitute a population homogeneous and co-operative to an extent never yet equalled elsewhere.

But the faith of our people in education and their disposition to support it is the greatest of these assets. In 1915 over 1,500,000 of the adolescent youth of this American people were studying in our public and private secondary schools. Over 250,000 young men and women were in our colleges. These hundreds of thousands represented the best of aspiring America. They are, to the extent that their schools and their surroundings are capable of inspiring them, eager to serve their country and time. They have acquired a kind of frankness and vital interest in realities that we think of as American. They are not easily subjugated to the traditional just because it is traditional, but neither are they at heart irreverent towards ancient or great things when the ancient is really significant and things alleged to be great (for present or future) are such in reality. They do not reverence authority as such, for they see in submission to authority a means and not an end of the truly democratic life.

Utterly without foundation is the carelessly made charge that these young Americans are preoccupied with sordid ambitions for money or position. True, each boy or young man, and, equally, be it said to their credit, each girl and young woman, now looks forward to the day when he shall be able to render through some suitable vocation valuable service to the society which has nourished him. As a means

to fullest serviceableness in this vocation, he desires and actively embraces at the right time, genuine vocational education; and in some collective capacity America is now disposed to expand opportunities for vocational education as supplemental to the general or liberal education which our regular schools have heretofore offered. Much as we aspire to a due measure of leisure for all, we do not approve the ideal of a leisure class as such. We are too familiar with the close connections heretofore obtaining between leisure classes and a prevalent sensual aestheticism and moral degeneracy.

These clean-limbed, open-minded youth of ours—are we to believe that they have only inferior capacities for higher idealism, for the development of that new humanism for which the twentieth century calls? It is the proper function of education to help face these adolescents towards the future. This is no static civilization of ours. We are not seeking to remain eternally on the same level. We have learned the inevitableness of change, of evolution, and we have begun to feel, if not yet clearly to perceive, the possibilities of controlled evolution.

What is the problem before the educational institutions of America? It is, let us repeat, to provide on behalf of our youth, the genuine means of a *liberal* education that shall be adapted to our age, our people, our circumstances. What would the best of the Athenians of the age of Pericles do were they in our place today? Would they try to find in forgotten tongues and antiquated fragments of literature the culture, the idealism, the mental disciplines that will transform plastic youths into citizens strong to uphold the state, to advance up the slopes of intellectual inquiry and of appreciation of the possibilities of conscious co-operative direction of social forces towards the higher goals that the purposeful discovery of the future will reveal to us?

Let us first try to interpret what is undoubtedly in America today a very well-developed, even if only partially articulate, spirit of humanism—using that term in a legitimately modernized sense. It is not possible for us to locate the gods behind the summit of Mt. Olympus. To us they are abroad in our own land and among our own people, and the effects of their wills are everywhere manifest in our own day. In many of the most important matters of life our attitude and outlook are almost inconceivably different from those of the Greeks and Romans. Slavery and all other forcible subjugations of the body and spirit of man, not required for the general social well-being, have become things abhorrent. Moral degradation, poverty, and all the other sources and concomitants of low efficiency, of undemocratic competition, and of persisting unhappiness, are steadily being repudiated by the social conscience of our time. More keenly than ever do we perceive the needless horrors entailed by aggressive war, the disease-like character of crime and immorality, and the social wastage resulting from lack of knowledge and skill. A constantly increasing proportion of our people are steadily striving towards the day when within our borders may be found a vast and a thriving population, keenly appreciative of all the sources of light and fine sentiment that help to make life richer and purer. To the attainment of these conditions, we more than ever perceive the need of originality, of science, of the development of the best humanistic ideals and means.

We begin to understand our responsibilities for developing types of citizenship that Greece or Rome could not possibly conceive. It is our conviction that in a democracy, it belongs to all to assure to each the right to be socially efficient in all ways—culturally and morally, no less than physically and vocationally; and to enforce the performance by each of the duties which inevitably attend and complement rights. America sets the world high example in its persistent demands for

increasingly wholesome family life, a better position for women, a fair start in life for all children. We are striving towards the time when in a purposeful way we may use all forms of fine art to the fullest extent that is possible in our day and generation as instruments of control, development, enrichment of life. We certainly see much farther into the things of society than did or could our Greek or Judean or Roman or Teutonic forebears. We have now the means of developing, as they could not, things of the mind and things of the spirit.

The new aims and methods will have to be developed in large part experimentally by educators who are well grounded in psychology and sociology. It is improbable that these experimenters will fail to make full use of the valuable materials to be found in existing customs. Like the Pasteurs, Edisons, and Lincolns who, in other fields have wrought to new achievements, they will gladly take from past practice or surviving custom the light that will help them on their way. All they ask is that their efforts be not blocked by vested interests and protected faiths. There is no credit to a civilized society in allowing prejudice and blind conservatism to visit death on a Socrates, ignomy on a Columbus, and disheartening obstruction on a Pasteur. The experimental schools of tomorrow—and we must and shall have scores of them—ought to be given the freest possible scope to develop and test new and varied objectives and the means of realizing them.

In a few essential respects, it is certainly even now practicable for the student of modern education to predict some probable developments in the new liberal education.

For the adolescent youth the processes of that education will involve reasonable amounts of the sharpest and sternest discipline—discipline of powers of body, of mind, and of moral character. But the youth himself will certainly be an appreciative and informed party as regards the ends of these disciplines. He will not usually need to be driven in fear, or be

invited to proceed in blind faith, because the valid worth of that which he must do will be a matter of generally understood demonstration. Like the Athenian youth whom we delight to recall, he will be trained, and trained hard if necessary, in those powers that have a visibly functional place in society as it is today or will be tomorrow. No longer will he be obliged, in the name of an obsolete pedagogy, to subject himself to disciplines which, like the nostrums of mediaeval medicine, could rarely be taken by intelligent persons except in a spirit of uncertainty and misgiving.

We are indeed learning to be ashamed of that devotion to educational "simples" which in our secondary education deluded us into thinking that a year or two of work with algebra and geometry by adolescents who would later make no vocational use of the knowledge acquired, or four years of indifferent study of a classical language, with its resulting meagre grasp of literary selection, read often with the furtive aid of ponies, can give for our day and generation the foundations of the powers which we idealize as intellectual discipline. We are learning the futilities of that misleading and mechanical pedagogy based upon a metaphysical and unscientific psychology which thinks to find in Latin and algebra intellectual philosopher's stones—to find in these mummified studies, quite divorced from all the realities of mind, spirit and body as they belong to our day and generation, precious means of nurture for mind and spirit.

But the new liberal education will achieve only part of its results through the rigorous processes of hard discipline. It will provide also for many forms of growth through appeals to native interest, ambition, and instinctive good will. It will discover a pedagogy suited to the easy evoking and establishing of appreciations and ideals of approved worth. It is a widespread error of educators of the older type that schools rated good by current standards develop appreciation, tastes and

ideals generally through the exercises of the classroom. This happens occasionally for the rare pupil under an average teacher and for many pupils under the exceptional teacher—that one teacher out of a thousand whose native genius can make even mathematics or Latin fascinating. But these finer qualities are much more often the by-products of the school life, the residual effects of play, social intercourse, and miscellaneous reading. The secondary school of the future will have a splendid opportunity to extend and render more effective these forms of education of which the disciplinarian and taskmaster knows little and often cares less. A new type of schoolmaster must arise who can comprehend the significance in true cultural education of self-inspired work, leisurely development of tastes and abiding interests, and the richness of inspired social intercourse.

Much light is now being shed on the problems of developing a functioning liberal education through the progress recently made in defining the ends and means of effective vocational education. Heretofore, all education except the vocational education designed to prepare for a few professions, has been vaguely assumed to “fit for life”—in the vocational no less than in the cultural and civic sense. Faculties of liberal arts colleges have solemnly defended the thesis “a college education pays” when business men, moved only by considerations of vocational efficiency, have challenged them. That a college education might well “pay” on grounds wholly other than vocational—and pay both the individual in culture and the other abiding satisfactions of life, as well as society in the higher type of citizen produced—should be a highly defensible thesis. But endless confusion results when the objectives of vocational education and of liberal education are confused, or when it is assumed that the same means and methods will serve equally the ends of each. Vocational education in any properly delimited meaning of the words must have its processes, its



means and methods strictly determined by the requirements of a known calling—and in the modern world these tend to proliferate and multiply along lines of specialization to an almost indefinite extent.

Fortunately, we now see that we cannot effectively “vocalize” education by offering in a high school or college a few elective studies or courses of an academic nature, with a slight accompaniment of laboratory illustration or practice. We have been attempting this in numberless cases with agricultural, industrial and commercial education—and even with home economics, journalism, business administration, teaching and social work. Only recently are we coming to perceive the great wastefulness and futility of it all. We are certainly destined soon to have a system of vocational schools, the vestibuled approaches to the thousands of vocations now found in civilized society, but these schools will be as definitely differentiated from schools of general education as are now colleges of law, medicine, dentistry and military leadership. We may expect then that the functions properly belonging to schools not vocational in purpose will be revealed more clearly. With this knowledge, we can proceed to devise the most effective general or liberalizing education for those thousands who must or will close their general school in their fourteenth or fifteenth year; for those other thousands, more fortunately situated, who can give from one to four precious years to the liberal education offered by the secondary school before embarking on the study or practice of a specific vocation; and also for that minority who usually combine much native ability with fortunate home conditions who aspire to a “college degree” before taking up the study of a profession. Here lie our opportunities to differentiate the ends and to determine the means of genuine liberal education.

Among its larger objectives this liberal education must develop and conserve for present and future generations in

those who are to lead, attitudes of intelligent hopefulness, and faiths in human improvement and all that we call progress. Towards other peoples and towards peoples of different qualities in our midst, it must stand for increase in sympathetic understanding and mutual helpfulness. As regards the great social inheritance of knowledge, customs, and institutions which we have acquired from the past, its spirit should be appreciative and discriminating, based on the conviction that some things, and some things only, of that inheritance have a vital, a functional significance for the present and the future.

Among the more specific results of a better liberal education, we trust that the men and women in the future will exhibit a finer and stronger command of our wonderful mother tongue than is now the case. A good command of the vernacular is indeed among the vague ideals of our schools of liberal education now, but the means to their realization of this are seriously ineffective. We have every right to expect the discovery of educational means whereby education towards desirable mastery of English can steadily be improved. There exist beliefs—shall I say superstitious beliefs (certainly they rest on no adequate evidence)—that study of one or more alien tongues is a highly desirable, if not necessary, condition of sound attainments in the vernacular. But with English steadily evolving towards becoming a world language, we can have confidence that a fine command of it is possible under right methods of training, even to those who have secured no power over another language.

It will readily be understood that well-developed insights into, and appreciations of, English literature must also count as an indispensable element in the liberal education of all our young men and women. But this is not to be interpreted as including only study of those portions of English literature which are held to be classics. Too often the older vernacular literature, like the ancient literatures in other languages, possesses no

functional value in inspiring youth to seek to interpret and to share in the control of the social and cultural forces of the twentieth century. We must include appreciations, understandings and evaluations of all that literature which is each year in process of being made—and which, in a collective way, often voices the aspirations and the forming social attitudes of the peoples and times in which we live. Of course, at present we know little of the best means and methods for the direction to such study; but they are certainly discoverable.

Next in importance to the English language and English literature as means of liberal education, we should place the social sciences, as these can be adapted to lay secure foundations of insight and ideals for good citizenship and fine human aspiration. But here again we must discard the traditions that have heretofore bound us to the ancient and the remote. History, that great encyclopedic massing of data for the social sciences, must be made a subject of reference, not something to be studied for its own sake in chronological order by those youths who are laying the foundations for genuine humanistic culture. Students must first acquire concrete experience and definite knowledge through vital contact with the significant realities of the living present; then, as occasion offers, and needs of interpretation and perspective arise, they will be turned towards those things in history that demonstrably do function in better appreciation or understanding of the things of today, tomorrow, and next century. The range and variety of problems to be solved by the citizen of a progressive democracy in the twentieth century are great indeed; and that can be no true culture, no true humanistic learning, which does not with sureness of aim and precision of method inspire and train the adolescent for their solution.

Few will dispute the claim that in a modern scheme of liberal education a large place should also be given to natural science. The science subjects now found in our secondary

schools and, to a large extent, in our liberal arts colleges, have rarely contributed in any genuine way to culture. They have suffered somewhat from the opposition of the former defenders of the classics but still more from their misguided friends who would, on the one hand, make them Cinderellas in the interest of vocational competency or else sharp drillmasters of "scientific method" and the mental discipline supposed to be derived from an intellectual "cure-all." Wholly new objectives and wholly new methods are needed in natural science teaching. Some successful experiments pointing ways to these are to be found even now. No one awake to the larger possibilities of liberal education need doubt that the natural sciences—those sources of insight and aspiration that have largely made the twentieth century, for good or for ill, what it is—can yet be made vital means of liberal education.

There remain the fine arts of music, painting, and sculpture. Our schemes of so-called liberal education give little or no place to these today. But should not purposive development of taste and insight here be given prominence in any generous project for liberal education? Certainly discriminating and catholic appreciation of these fine arts constitute a large element in culture as best understood and defined. No less, certainly, when once the valid objectives of a functioning liberal education shall have been determined, we shall find appreciative studies of the fine arts given high rank among the means to that end.

What do we desire with reference to the classics in our schools and colleges? Only this: that they shall be accorded no special favors, given no artificially protected position. We wish the field of higher education to be made as open as possible to the end that in its every effort to devise, invent, and create the means of a liberal education adapted to the needs of our time and opportunities, we shall not be hampered by the dead hands of useless tradition, the old inertias and controls of an

age that saw in a static civilization the highest of all earthly glories.

Do we wish to prevent the study of the Latin, and especially of the Greek, language and literatures? Assuredly not! For those with genuine interests in such studies, every facility should be afforded in schools and colleges that can obtain enough students to justify the expense. And we hope that, given fewer students and the genuinely interested, such studies might become, for a few at any rate, genuine well-springs of interest, appreciation, and insight—something which is far from being the case at present.

We earnestly desire that the great languages and literatures of Greece and of Rome, and of every other age that has enriched the world, shall be the objects from time to time of careful inquiry and developed appreciation by persons mature enough to serve as interpreters of these treasures to each succeeding generation. We believe that from age to age in the light of our own added knowledge and developed experience, these languages and literatures will still continue to make their contributions, as will, in somewhat similar measure, ancient Irish lore, the sagas of the European northwest, the philosophy of India, the religious writings of Confucius, and even the mythology of our own North American Indians. To none of these sources of inspiration can a country like ours in its future evolution be completely indifferent. From time to time, we shall expect aspiring spirits to visit these faraway lands and to bring back some treasures fit for the adornment of our temples. For these purposes, however, we shall require no compulsory study of these ancient languages in our secondary schools or our colleges. Much more profitable will it be for us that individuals themselves take the initiative from time to time in making the necessary explorations.

In fact, a large part of the liberal education offered, even in the secondary school, will consist in the deep plumbing of a few

intellectual or aesthetic fields in which the candidate has native interest and power. Under a yet to be developed system of educational guidance, each learner will be induced, as part of this liberal education, to select some one field of culture and to make of that a life interest. Among these might well be: Greek language and literature; 17th century English literature; modern Japanese language, history, and literature; violin music; architecture; "natural history" of a given region; some branch of social science; eugenics.

The foreign languages, ancient and modern, and mathematics—what place will finally be reserved for these subjects which, despite frequent allegation to the contrary, now compose the heavier part of practically all programs of secondary education designed as preparation for college, solely because of their supposed value as apparatus for mental gymnastics? It is perhaps too early to say with confidence. Algebra and geometry will unquestionably hold a strong position in the prevocational training of those who have reasonable expectations of entering vocations using mathematics as an important instrument. A few other persons may be expected to elect them through sheer native interest in the special intellectual activity and the particular insight which such study affords. We shall hope and expect, too, that in addition to those who study for probable vocational use, a modern language, others may be induced to give the toil and enthusiasm required to beget that mastery of French, or Japanese, or Russian, or Spanish, which shall enable the fortunate possessors thereof, like generous amateur musicians, to be sources of appreciation and insight in circles where they move, as well as translators—in the larger sense of the term—of the good will and intellectual riches of the peoples whose culture has become accessible to them through the mastered language. In somewhat similar process may we also expect, as elsewhere suggested, fine spirits to prepare themselves, from time to time, to journey intellec-

tually in quest of treasure still to be found behind the linguistic walls of Greek, Latin, Sanscrit, Erse, and Inca writings.

To make these things possible in education, much will yet be needed of courage, faith, inventiveness, and labor. But these are even now extensively enlisted in support of many progressive movements and experimental developments. One immediate step that will help much is an educational declaration of independence which will release the grip of one of the few surviving relics of old-world tradition—a declaration of independence from the grip of the Dead Hand of Latin.



A PRELIMINARY ATTEMPT TO DEVISE  
A TEST OF THE ABILITY OF HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS  
IN THE MENTAL MANIPULATION OF  
SPACE RELATIONS

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With the appearance in recent years of a number of studies in space perception and visual imagery<sup>1</sup>, teachers of high school mathematics have become increasingly aware of the part played in this subject by the pupil's ability to perceive, remember, analyze, and work over in imagination space relations of two and three dimensions. A brief survey of almost any classroom situation in which geometrical mathematics is the subject of study reveals the fact that the pupil's success or failure is conditioned to no small extent by his ability to "see the figure," to rearrange the parts of a figure, to construct in imagination essential but missing parts of a figure, to hold certain elements of the figure or situation in mind while adding or taking away others. Familiar illustrations of this fact are the pupil's inability to construct a parallelogram on a given triangle, or a triangular prism on a given triangular pyramid; his difficulty in "turning figures over" so that corresponding parts lie in corresponding positions; his inability to read off the correct proportions from two similar figures when not similarly placed with respect to each other.

<sup>1</sup> Judd, C. H., and Cowling, D. J., Studies in Perceptual Development. Psychological Monographs, Vol. VIII, No. 3, Pp. 349.

Judd, C. H., Psychology of High School Subjects. Ginn & Co. 1915.

Rugg, H. O., Experimental Determination of Mental Discipline in School Studies. Warwick & York. 1916.

Nor is the exercise of this ability to deal with space relations limited to the field of geometrical mathematics. The pupil in general science is called upon to use space imagery when he reads that the suction pump works as follows:

" . . . As the handle is forced downward, the plunger rod and plunger are raised. The water which is already above the plunger, or bucket, is lifted till it stands higher than the spout, out of which it runs.

" . . . as the plunger is raised there is a tendency to produce a vacuum just beneath it. The atmosphere pressing down upon the surface of the water in the well forces the water up the run and through the inlet valve to fill the vacuum . . . ."<sup>1</sup>

The pupil in sewing may find frequent need of spatial imagery as witness the following description of how to make a muff:

" . . . Cut a piece of muslin 7 inches long and  $3\frac{1}{4}$  inches wide. Lay this piece on the silk that you are to use for the lining and baste it lightly on. Then cut the lining all around, being sure that it is a quarter of an inch larger on every side than the muslin. Fold this quarter of an inch of silk over the muslin and baste it. The next thing to do is to make the trimming to go around the edge of the muff. . . . If you use silk, cut a piece one inch wide and about 30 inches long. Fold it in the middle lengthwise and gather where the two edges come together. Then baste this gathered ruffle around the two long sides and one short side of the piece you have just made, being sure to baste it on the same side you basted the lining. Now for the outside of the muff. . . . If you use velvet cut the piece 7 inches by  $3\frac{1}{4}$  inches and turn in the edges half an inch. Sew the outside piece neatly to the gathered edge. When you have done this, fold in the shape of a muff and fasten the narrow ends together, leaving the end with the ruffle on the outside."<sup>2</sup>

Again the pupil in English, it would seem, must make use of some form of space ideas if he is to appreciate such literary passages as the following:

"The mill where Will lived with his adopted parents stood in a falling valley between pinewoods and great mountains. Above, hill after hill

<sup>1</sup> Barber, Fuller, et al. *General Science*, pp. 476. Cf.—*Construction of the Water Meter*, pp. 496; *The Four-cycle Engine*, pp. 577.

<sup>2</sup> Edna A. Foster: *Something to Do, Girls*, pp. 36.

soared upwards until they soared out of the depth of the hardest timber, and stood naked against the sky. Some way up a long gray village lay like a seam or rag of vapor on a wooded hillside; and when the wind was favorable the sound of the church bells would drop down, thin and silvery to Will. Below, the valley grew ever steeper and steeper and at the same time widened out on either hand; and from an eminence beside the mill it was possible to see its whole length and away beyond it over a wide plain, where the river turned and shone and moved on from city to city on its voyage towards the sea."<sup>1</sup>

Or finally the man who has just purchased his first automobile and is glancing through the instruction book will find occasion to use space imagination in some measure as he reads such paragraphs as this on how to adjust the carburetor:

"1. Turn gasoline adjustment to the right until needle valve is completely closed. 2. Set air adjusting screw so that the end of the screw is even with the point of the ratchet spring just above it. 3. Open gasoline adjustment by giving needle valve one full turn. 4. Start motor as usual; with air regulator turned to "Hot" until motor is thoroughly warmed up. 5. With the spark lever fully retarded turn gasoline adjustment to the right closing needle valve until motor idles smoothly. 6. Advance the spark lever and turn air adjustment screw to the left, a little at a time, until the motor begins to slow down or skip, indicating too much air; then turn to the right until the motor runs smoothly."<sup>2</sup>

These random illustrations out of a large number that might easily be cited serve to emphasize in a concrete way the importance and wide application of the ability to perceive and rearrange in imagination spatial data and relations. The moment our attention is drawn to the need for this ability in some form in so many different lines of pupil activity a number of questions immediately arise to our minds. We are interested in knowing when this ability normally begins to develop, to what extent it may be trained, what sorts of training material are necessary or most effective and economical. More particularly those of us who are conducting high

<sup>1</sup> Robert Louis Stevenson: *Will O' the Mill*, pp. 1.

<sup>2</sup> Buick Motor Co., *Instruction Book*, 1917, pp. 27.

school courses wish to know to what extent any given training material in mathematics, drawing, or other school course develops or trains its pupils in either specific or general ability to deal with space relations.

It was with these and related questions in mind that the present attempt was made to devise some sort of class test that should yield a rough measure of the ability of each pupil in a class to image space relations. It was, of course, realized from the start that any class test consisting of questions to be read and answered by the pupils in class must involve other factors than the particular ability which it was desired to measure. One of the most significant of these factors would necessarily be the ability of the pupil to read. But it was hoped that such factors might prove, in classes of high school rank, to be more or less constant in both preliminary and final tests, thus leaving the ability to deal with space as a fairly accessible element of the pupil's mental reactions.

The first step in the study was the formulation of a number of questions. Some, as will appear, were suggested by questions to be found in other tests,<sup>1</sup> while the remainder were taken from everyday experiences in and out of the classroom. Each question involved in its answer the imaging of objects and relations in two or three dimensional space. Only such questions were selected as dealt with objects and relations perfectly familiar to high school pupils and the wording in each question was made as clear and simple as possible. A

<sup>1</sup> Healy, W., and Fernald, G. M. Tests for Practical Mental Classification. Psychological Monographs, Vol. XIII, No. 2.

Kent, G. H. A Graded Series of Geometrical Puzzles. Journal of Experimental Psychology, Vol. I, pp. 41.

Pintner and Paterson: A Scale of Performance Tests. D. Appleton & Co., 1917.

Rogers, A. L. Experimental Tests of Mathematical Ability and their Prognostic Value. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1918.

Rugg, H. C. Experimental Determination of Mental Discipline in School Studies. Warwick & York, 1916.

Terman, L. M. Measurement of Intelligence. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 1916

Whipple G. M. Manual of Mental and Physical Tests.

trial set of 34 such questions was drawn up and given under regular test conditions to three high school classes, one in second year mathematics, one in third year, and one in fourth year. A careful study of the results secured from this first set of questions was made with a view to eliminating such defects as came to light in the wording or subject matter of each question. On the basis of these findings two new sets of questions, called test A and test B, given below, were drawn up. The two sets were made of as nearly the same difficulty as was possible at this point in the study.

Test A was now given as a pre-training test to 13 classes in first and second year high school mathematics selected at random in four different high schools. The total number thus taking test A was 337. Using the answers thus obtained the score to be assigned to each question was determined on the assumption that the abilities involved in the test were distributed in accordance with the normal probability curve in these classes. In the same way test B was given as a pre-training test to 13 other classes similarly chosen from the same schools. The total number thus taking test B was 352. As in test A the answers thus obtained were used to determine the score to be assigned to each question in test B. These pre-training tests were followed by a "training interval" varying in length from 10 days to 4 months for the different classes, during which interval the pupils in each class pursued their regular studies under normal school conditions. At the close of this training interval test B was given to 10 out of the 13 classes that had taken test A previously while test A was given to 10 out of the 13 classes that had taken test B previously.

While the entire study was frankly of a preliminary nature it was hoped that some results might be secured from these tests which would be of value in the final formulation of a series of test questions. Individual and class scores in both the pre-training and post-training tests were therefore

computed and a number of correlations worked out. A brief study of this material however sufficed to show that it was of minor value in determining how far particular questions might be used in the final series. On the other hand it soon became apparent that the pupils' errors were of no little significance in revealing the character of the mental processes involved in answering particular questions. For this reason a careful study of all the incorrect answers in the pre-training test papers was made in order to determine the nature and frequency of the errors that had occurred. The results of this study are given in brief in the comments following each question of test A and test B. The principal types of errors thus found to recur are then presented in the summary following test B. The net outcome of the calculations just referred to and of the study of errors has been the construction of two new sets of questions, presented at the close of this report as test C and test D, in which a number of the questions used in tests A and B have been omitted, several have been reworded, and a number of questions included that were not used in tests A and B.

In the two lists of questions immediately following, comprising test A and test B, the errors are noted in the order of frequency with which they occurred. The suggested explanation of each of these is only a suggestion though stated arbitrarily and without constant repetition of the "perhaps" or "probably" which should precede each such suggestion. Where the question is changed or omitted in the revised tests, test C and test D, this fact is noted with accompanying explanation.

*(To be concluded in November)*

## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### A BROADER VIEW OF HOME ECONOMICS

During the summer the American Home Economics Association held its annual meeting in Chicago. Throughout the sessions there was constant reference to the urgent need at this time of emphasis on intelligent organization of the home. A platform was adopted expressing the convictions of the members of the Association. The relations of home economics to the child welfare movement and to the movement for the promotion of public health were pointed out in this platform, as was also the relation of home economics to conservation of food, fuel, and clothing. The platform devotes two paragraphs to the statement that boys as well as girls should be included in the sphere of influence of the department. The department is evidently willing to assume in this way additional responsibilities.

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One cannot help feeling that the platform is vague in its conception of the methods of securing an extension of the homemaker's horizon; that it fails absolutely to bring out the broader social implications of the homemaking problem. There is a kind of concentration of attention on a few immediate problems which gives the painful impression that home economics has not yet developed a perspective. There is no symptom of recognition of the fact that the home is only one part of a great whole which is today transformed into an entirely new kind of machinery for defending civilization.

It is well for the home to receive attention, but if boys and girls are to understand the home they will have to understand the army and the issues which are being fought out in France. If girls are to be intelligent about conservation, they will have to see beyond food, fuel, and clothing. The fact is that much of the thinking about home economics still suffers from the traditional narrowness of the common conception of woman's sphere. Many a teacher of home economics seems to think that girls can learn about society and its organization by specializing in cooking and dressmaking. The fact is, of course, that the great sweeping movements which have caught up the home and all our other social institutions can be no more understood from inside the home than the universe can be understood from within a castle.

Why does the Home Economics Association fail to see that girls in high schools need to be taught fully and explicitly what the Department of Agriculture is, what the Department of the Interior is, what the United States Treasury is? We are all of us concerned in a very vital way with these great governmental agencies which control the home and the gigantic forces that are sweeping the home along in their current. Why does the Home Economics Association make no reference in its platform to the study of the market system of the United States? Why is not the study of the railroad

system included? The refrigerator car alone has transformed our mode of living. The impression created by the reading of the platform is that those who drafted the platform do not see these broader matters. They are microscopically concentrated on the immediately near-at-hand and the result is that girls are being misled into the belief that they are modern and scientific because a few modern phrases are used in discussing a narrow specialty, when in reality the door has not been opened as it should be for the broad survey of present-day social organization.

Now is the time to change all this. Girls are to have during the period of the war almost a monopoly of higher education outside of the purely technical lines. They ought to realize and their advisers ought to understand that there is no study too broad in its scope for the girls. Home economics ought to expand until girls are taught that society in its broad sense includes every aspect of industry, transportation, and agriculture. Girls ought to understand that they must train themselves in the most comprehensive principles of industrial and social management. The new program for women is not a home program in the narrow sense; it is a social program. Until the home economics teachers see this they ought not to try to administer the work to either girls or boys.

Lest someone should feel that the criticism of the platform is unjust, the whole document is herewith reproduced.

The American Home Economics Association recently held its annual meeting at the University of Chicago and at Hull House, Chicago. The membership of the Association is composed of men and women who are interested in improving conditions of living in the home, the institutional household, and the community.

In view of the unusual responsibilities now resting upon the home and the institutional household, in the promotion and maintenance of conservation of health, food, clothing, fuel and other essentials, the Association determined to reaffirm its platform in the following statements:

It is voted to work through the coming year, individually and collectively in full co-operation with government agencies, to forward the following causes:

I. To establish and maintain instruction in the elements of home management, including the principles of nutrition, the proper choice and preparation of foods, thrift and economy in the use of clothing, fuel, and other household essentials to all girls in the higher elementary grades and in the high schools, at least in the first two years.

II. Inasmuch as the administration of the household is of common interest and importance to both men and women, and the maintenance of the individual away from home also demands an understanding of these matters, to urge appropriate instruction for boys as well as for girls as far as practicable, in matters relative to the welfare and maintenance of the individual and of the home.

III. To promote the establishment of departments of home economics in normal schools and colleges and courses dealing with questions of public health, nutrition and thrift open to all students, both men and women.

IV. To co-operate in the extension of Home Economics instruction in the conservation of food, fuel, clothing and other household essentials to housewives desiring such assistance.

V. To further, individually and collectively, the campaign for child welfare through the establishment of courses of instruction in child care and child welfare in schools and colleges, and through active cooperation with the Children's Bureau.

VI. To aid all community enterprises which extend the ideals of Home Economics or promote the improvement and maintenance of health.

VII. To support and maintain the Journal of Home Economics as a means of extending knowledge of the subject and of promoting thought and discussion.

VIII. To promote research by encouraging and aiding investigations and research in universities, and by meetings local and national, in order that knowledge may be increased, and public opinion informed and advancement made secure by legislative enactment.

IX. To give active support to all legislation, state and federal, which aims to secure any of the ends which we are working to promote.

X. For the above purposes rally all the members of the national association; to stimulate local and state associations to increased endeavor in these directions, and to ask for the co-operation of other existing volunteer agencies now engaged in related movements such as, the Federation of

Women's Clubs, the Red Cross, Social Service Organizations, Public Health, Nursing Association.

The Council of the Association is hereby authorized and empowered to take appropriate measures to forward this program.

#### REORGANIZATION AT BROWN UNIVERSITY

Brown University has been undergoing during the past twelve months an internal reorganization which brings out certain fundamental educational principles which are likely to be recognized very widely in the immediate future.

The statement of the way in which the reorganization came about is given in the official announcement in the following paragraphs:

The change will embody the announced conviction of the faculty that the old order of instruction should be materially altered to make the university more useful to the country in this time of unprecedented stress. Last year what is characterized as an "opportunist" policy prevailed at Brown. There was a general realization that classroom and workshop courses should be adapted to war conditions, and this adaptation was begun in a tentative and desultory way.

The general desire for a farther reaching and more systematic readjustment led, at the last regular faculty meeting of the academic year in May, to the appointment of a committee of 12, not merely to suggest a definite new system, but with actual power to put such a system into effect for the duration of the war, subject to the approval of the Board of Fellows.

The first change made on the recommendation of the Committee was a readjustment of the college year. When Brown opens in September it will be for continuous sessions. The calendar year will hereafter be divided into three academic terms of sixteen weeks each.

The all-round-year for colleges has been organized during the year past by a number of institutions, including Stanford and the state universities of Washington and Montana. The evident conservation of institutional equipment and of the time of students makes it unnecessary to argue at length for this kind of change. It involves an increase in the annual

budget to inaugurate the plan and keep it up, because the amount of instruction given in a year is materially increased by the change. This increased cost plus inertia on the part of faculties and boards of education is holding back many institutions which ought to be encouraged by the example of Brown to begin an all-round-year. The experience of the University of Chicago in this matter is unequivocally in favor of continuous sessions.

The second change which Brown has inaugurated has to do with the grouping of courses. The experience of the past thirty years has shown that the elective system tends to strengthen departmental lines. It is very common for departments in their striving for numbers of students to overlook the practical needs of students. For example, it is very natural for an English department to strive to secure as many required years as possible within its own boundaries on the theory that English is the most valuable subject in the world. So is it also with other departments less successful in getting on the required list. In these days of war all departments have come to recognize the fact that there are considerations which transcend in importance the desire to maintain departmental boundaries. First, the demands of the war must be met and, second, those of practical life.

The statement published in the *Providence Journal* regarding Brown's new program is as follows:

The main purpose of the changed courses is to emphasize the relationship of the classroom, workshop and laboratory to life, particularly life under present conditions. Every department, it is said, will conform its instruction to wartime requirements. Stress will be laid on the problems to which the world struggle is daily giving rise. Army and Navy training will be made prominent. A new military department has indeed been in operation for some months, and one of the few naval units thus far planned for any American college will begin work in the fall. The student, moreover, will have a choice among half a dozen courses of definitely "grouped" studies during most of his course, so that his mastery of some one specialized line will be

facilitated. This does not mean that the so-called cultural studies will be abandoned or that there will no longer be any attempt to give the student a well-rounded college course. But it does mean that the way is to be cleared for him to select naturally affiliated subjects of instruction for himself and so prepare himself more fully for a successful after career.

The new plan will require material support. It is called by its promoters a plan of "aggressive adaptation" as opposed to "passive retrenchment." Confronted in common with other educational institutions with a loss of students and decreased income, Brown has courageously and patriotically determined to increase its public usefulness instead of diminishing it.

Within the departments as well as in the grouping of courses there will be changes looking in the direction of service. The *Evening Bulletin* of Providence puts the matter as follows:

Efforts will be made in all the university departments to meet the needs of students with special reference to the war. Thus, in the department of geology stress will be laid on map drawing and the study of climatic conditions. In the study of European history, a considerable portion of the year will be devoted to the interpretation of the present world struggle and the diplomacy connected with it. In economics the United States Government's railroad and labor policies will be stressed. In the department of mathematics, for the first time so far as known at any institution of learning, there will be a course in general mathematics, which will aim to give the student a new conception of mathematics as an orderly whole and enable him to apply to the practical problems of everyday life whatever branch of the subject is most adaptable to the case in hand. The student will be taught to read graphs, solve problems in engineering and statistical work, and the like.

In the department of social science emphasis will be put on the various war-time philanthropies, such as the Red Cross and the Y. M. C. A., rehabilitation work and work in camp. Courses in argumentation and logic will be directed to war problems. The department of biology will discuss matters of camp sanitation and hygiene. The engineering department will give courses in military and naval engineering and in wireless telegraphy.

There will be French and German war courses, with study of military terms and the literature covering the present situation, including official documents.

The endeavor of the committee has been first "to strengthen the relation of classroom instruction to life," and second, to provide, by the regrouping

of courses, "that the student shall have a liberal measure of training along some one line together with a broad and general cultural background." The concentration groups are not planned to take a man's entire time, but only from a third to a half of it.

The new grouping, it is pointed out, conforms largely to the student's future occupation. Already many Brown alumni have assumed positions of large importance by reason of the special training received in college, and the fruits of the new system, it is expected, will be seen in a larger contribution of efficient graduates to meet the larger public need.

Thus the war is giving to education a new perspective. The practical parts of courses and curricula are coming into the foreground. This will in the long run help those aesthetic and literary subjects which have in the past held themselves aloof from the practical, for these subjects will be vitalized in content and will also in their applications come to recognize as entirely legitimate the principle that the highest education should be for service.

#### TRAINING TECHNICAL EXPERTS

The War Department has found it necessary to take steps to secure trained workers in various lines. Indeed, as stated in a bulletin issued by the Bureau of Education early in the summer, all departments of the government service have found it extremely difficult to supply the necessary experts for the work which had to be done both in this country and abroad by skilled workmen.

The War Department has been trying a very interesting experiment in intensive training at a number of schools and universities. Squads of men have been at work for periods of eight weeks under instructors who give them courses eight hours a day. These men are under military discipline and have in addition to the work which they do in the shops a certain amount of military drill. The concentrated training which they have received has been most successful. In the period of eight weeks men who heretofore have occupied



positions as clerks and secretaries have been changed into journeymen carpenters or they have been given sufficient familiarity with mechanics to be very serviceable to the army in repair work and other similar lines. Whether it is the strong incentive of the war or the fact of concentrated training that has made possible this rapid education of the men is a matter that it is not very important to discuss. The main fact is that when society needs skilled workers they can be turned out, if the conditions are properly organized, at a rate heretofore unheard of.

The training of experts in chemistry and engineering has gone much more slowly, for the simple reason that this higher form of training involves not mere technical ability, but also the acquisition of a large body of scientific material. Institutions of higher education are being transformed by the demands of the war into training schools for these experts of higher classes and here again experience will undoubtedly make it evident that economy in education can be effected if the motive is strong enough.

The Bureau of Education in a recent bulletin has emphasized all these matters by calling attention to the fact that there is need all along the line for the training of experts. The full statement made by the Bureau of Education is well worth the attention of educational officers of all grades of schools. The statement is as follows:

Closely in line with the War Department's recommendations to make the draft ages 18 to 45, with provision for training of the younger men, is the report of Secretary Lane's special committee on higher education and industry just made public, wherein the Nation's need for technically trained men is defined and a specific higher education program urged.

The Committee, which consisted of Fuller E. Callaway, a financier of LaGrange, Ga.; Samuel M. Felton, director-general of military railways for the War Department, and President E. A. Alderman, of the University of Virginia, seeks to show how essential it is, if the Government's far-reaching military plans are to be carried out successfully, that the processes of higher

education be maintained at the highest possible efficiency—especially those having to do with the future supply of men and women trained in scientific and technical subjects, including teachers in these fields.

That it is impossible to exaggerate the importance of engineering knowledge and skill, in the broadest sense, is the judgment of Secretary Lane's committee not only directly in the conduct of military operations, but indirectly in the essential war industries, including agriculture. The report says:

"The engineering problems confronting the United States are infinitely greater than those of any other of the great nations. For an average distance of more than 4,500 miles, across the continents and the seas, we must transport all of the men, munitions, and supplies which are to represent us in this great struggle.

"Furthermore, the central powers prepared themselves for this conflict over a long period of years, and by this means determined its character to their own advantage in large measure. The loss by our Allies of men of highly specialized training in the early stages of the war, and the difficulties in the way of recovery, leave this Nation in the position of trustee of the only remaining sources of supply."

#### THE STUDENT ARMY TRAINING CORPS

The matters discussed in the last two notes belong to a period before the new draft law. Now that boys of eighteen are included in the draft the colleges face an entirely new situation. They have been transformed into preparatory schools for the Officers' Training Camps. There is practically nothing left, so far as the boys of this country are concerned, of the old type of easy-going college education. The subjects studied are to be those regarded by the War Department as essential to the making of a soldier. The discipline is to be military. The duration of any individual's course is in the hands of the War Department. The direction in which the War Department will send any given boy will depend on the ability and concentration which he exhibits in his work.

As the *Review* goes to press reports are coming in of enormous freshman classes in those colleges which have been approved by the War Department for this work.

It is interesting to speculate on what all this will mean for the future of higher education. The rattling of many dry bones is heard in the land. The old-time intellectual snobbery of a few fossilized academic cults is likely to disappear in the shuffle. There is a new day dawning when educational values will be more truly estimated by a nation purged of false tradition through the experience of a great emergency.

#### THE LA VERNE NOYES FOUNDATION

One of the most generous benefactions the University of Chicago has ever received is the recent gift by Mr. LaVerne Noyes of \$2,500,000. The income of these funds, which are to be known as "The LaVerne Noyes Foundation," is to be expended in paying the tuition in the University of Chicago of soldiers of this war and of their children and descendants. Annual provision is thus made for a considerable part of the college expenses of several hundred young people.

Mr. Noyes declared that it is his desire "to express his gratitude to those who ventured the supreme sacrifice of life for their country and for the freedom of mankind in this war, and also by giving them honor, to aid in keeping alive through the generations to come the spirit of unselfish, patriotic devotion without which no free government can long endure or will deserve to endure."

#### WOUNDED AND DISABLED SOLDIERS

*Science* for August 23, 1918, published an authorized statement of the status of disabled soldiers returned to this country from the front, presumably up to August 1. To five general reconstruction hospitals 537 cases have been sent. Of these, 151 are able to return to full duty; 212 are able to return to partial duty; only 39 will be unable to follow their former occupations. From the moment that these men

landed in the United States efforts have been made to keep their minds and hands occupied. In the wards of the hospitals the men are occupied with wood-carving, weaving, printing, typewriting, and the like. Upon men who show any aptitude, academic studies are urged. After leaving the wards the soldiers are given instruction in schools and shops. At present 132 are being instructed in mechanics and repair work; 151 in shorthand and typewriting; 235 in agriculture; 47 in telephone work; 49 in business.

ALLOTMENTS MADE BY THE FEDERAL BOARD OF  
INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

The Federal Board of Industrial Education announces that during the first year of its existence allotments have been made amounting, all told, to \$1,650,000. The Board further intimates that every state in the Union has participated in these allotments. Sums set aside for 1918-19 will amount to \$2,307,000, and the Board predicts that by 1925 the federal subsidy alone will exceed \$7,000,000. These are enormous sums of money; and when it is considered that every dollar given by the federal government under the Smith-Hughes Act has to be equaled by the state co-operating, the degree of uniformity of action which is ultimately possible is almost staggering. The Board does not seem to have intimated just what proportion of the 1918 subsidy has so far been covered dollar for dollar by the various states. Of course this is the interesting and vital fact which the public needs to know if we are to become aware of just how far the contemplated program is being adopted.

Upon this question the report of the Board does throw some light. Courses in agriculture have been established in 41 states, home economics in 29, and trade and industrial courses in 32 states. All three of these lines of work have been inaugurated in 22 states, while teacher-training courses

have been begun in 46 states. The data are not specific as to how widespread within the states these adoptions extend. We are informed, to be sure, that high schools are largely being utilized by the local boards. In New York 69 secondary schools are aided in agriculture, and 40 in trades and industry. Indiana has accepted and met the requirements for agriculture in 27 schools and for trades and industry in 21 schools. A southern state, Mississippi, has met the requirements for agriculture in 34 schools.

#### SCHOOLS AND THE WAR IN ENGLAND

"At the beginning of the war, when first the shortage of labor became apparent, a raid was made upon the schools, a great raid, a successful raid, a raid started by a large body of unreflecting opinion. The result of that raid upon the schools has been that hundreds of thousands of children in this country have been prematurely withdrawn from school, and have suffered an irreparable damage, a damage which it will be quite impossible for us hereafter adequately to repair. That is a very grave and distressing symptom."—H. A. L. FISHER, President of the English Board of Education.

"Any inquiry into education at the present juncture is big with issues of National fate. In the great work of reconstruction which lies ahead there are aims to be set before us which will try, no less searchingly than war itself, the temper and enduring qualities of our race; and in the realization of each and all of these, education, with its stimulus and discipline, must be our stand-by. We have to perfect the civilization for which our men have shed their blood and our women their tears; to establish new standards of value in our judgment of what makes life worth living, more wholesome and more restrained ideals of behavior and recreation, finer traditions of co-operation and kindly fellowship between class and class and between man and man. These are tasks for a

nation of trained character and robust physique, a nation alert to the things of the spirit, reverential of knowledge, reverential of its teachers, and generous in its estimate of what the production and maintenance of good teachers inevitably cost."—Report of the English Committee on Juvenile Education in Relation to Employment after the War.

#### ACCURACY OF OBSERVATION AND STATEMENT

In a commencement address prepared for the June, 1918, convocation of Reed College, President Eliot, with characteristic directness lays his hand upon several serious defects in American education. His gravest charge is that as a people we are characterized by gross inaccuracy in observing and in reporting; we are also extremely gullible.

Mr. Eliot says:

Since the United States went to war with Germany there has been an extraordinary exhibition of the incapacity of the American people as a whole to judge evidence, to determine facts, and even to discriminate between facts and fancies. This incapacity appears in the public press, in the prophecies of prominent administrative officials, both state and national, in the exhortations of the numerous commissions which are undertaking to guide American business and philanthropy, and in the almost universal acceptance by the people at large, day by day, of statements which have no foundation, and of arguments the premises of which are not facts or events, but only hopes and guesses. It is a matter of everyday experience that most Americans cannot observe with accuracy, repeat correctly a conversation, describe accurately what they have themselves seen or heard, or write out on the spot a correct account of a transaction they have just witnessed. These incapacities are exhibited just as much by highly educated Americans as they are by the uneducated, especially if the defects of their education have not been remedied in part by their professional experience. . . .

Remedies are the substitution of teaching by observation and experiment for much of the book work now almost exclusively relied on; the cultivation in the pupils of activity of body and mind during all school time—an activity which finds delight in the exercise of the senses and of the powers of expression in speech and writing; the insistence on the acquisi-

tion of personal skill of some sort; the stimulation in every pupil of interest in his work by making the object of it intelligible to him, whether that object be material or spiritual; the inspiration in every child of tastes and sensibilities which he can use to promote actually his present enjoyment and therefore in all probability his future happiness; and finally the persistent teaching of every pupil how facts are got at in common life, how to make an accurate record of observed facts, and how to draw safe inferences from well-recorded facts. Every boy and girl in school should learn by experience how hard it is to repeat accurately one short sentence just listened to, to describe correctly the colors on a bird, the shape of a leaf, or the design on a nickel. Every child should have had during its school life innumerable lessons in mental truth-seeking and truth-telling. As things now are, comparatively few children have any direct lessons in either process.



## Educational Writings

### I. A SURVEY OF RECENT BOOKS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL ENGLISH

R. L. LYMAN  
The University of Chicago

#### A. TEACHERS' HELPS

Since our review of October, 1917,<sup>1</sup> five new books and several pamphlets have appeared, which may be classed as teachers' helps. Of these C. H. Ward's *What Is English?*<sup>2</sup> easily takes first rank. Ward is the author of one of the texts reviewed below,<sup>3</sup> and of a teacher's manual<sup>4</sup> which accompanies his text. His main thesis is perhaps best set forth in a small folder entitled *Accuracy First*, which is distributed without charge by the publishing house. Ward cites Professor Carpenter, as saying that "illiteracy is the kernel of the whole matter." This, in short, is Ward's hobby, both in textbook and in pedagogical discussion.

*What Is English?* is an invaluable desk book for every teacher whether of English or of any other subject. The author's informal and breezy arraignment of all who disagree with his college-preparatory point of view, accuracy first, at once amuses and holds the reader. To be sure, Ward wants to cultivate more than mere mechanics of language; he desires to see his pupils grow in accuracy of observation, of thinking, and of judgment. This being the case, it is somewhat laughable to find him devoting a large part of his first chapter to a faulty analogy (which, by the way, he borrows) and to a somewhat tactless criticism of a large body of American teachers, many of whom we may assume are easily Ward's superiors in scholarship and general attainments. Seldom does one meet a writer who naively admits that certain of his affirmations are "exaggerated and sarcastic." Fair is it to say, none the less, that Ward's thought and style are gripping. The particular version of his main thesis as it appears in this book is: "Our

<sup>1</sup> *School Review*, XXV, (October, 1917), 606.

<sup>2</sup> C. H. WARD. *What Is English?* Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1917. \$1.00.

<sup>3</sup> *Sentence and Theme*. See p. 625.

<sup>4</sup> *Pilot Book for Sentence and Theme*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1917. \$0.50.

first and plainest duty is to teach decent English." That's true; no one denies it; the reader wonders why the obvious is thundered so loudly. Yes, indeed, the book is readable from cover to cover; and no teacher can afford to miss the admirable chapters on "Intensive Spelling," "What Grammar Is About," "Usage in Pointing," "Themes," and "Reading." Scores of helpful devices which can be carried directly into a classroom are presented, all growing out of Mr. Ward's extended experience.

*What Is English?* is rightly given a suggestive and appropriate subtitle. *A Book of Strategy for English Teachers.* The *Pilot Book* contains 29 pages of pedagogical discussion covering in brief form much the same ground as his *Book of Strategy*. The rest of the pamphlet of 90 pages covers his textbook, *Sentence and Theme*, lesson by lesson, giving extremely valuable hints as to class procedure, together with the materials which are found in *Punctuation Leaves*. The latter is a pupil's practice book, conveniently perforated, containing well-chosen sentences. We strongly urge every teacher to possess Mr. Ward's entire set of contributions.

The second teachers' book of importance is *The New Century Handbook of Writing*.<sup>1</sup> The authors have in some respects greatly improved upon Wooley, long accepted as the standard. First, they have reduced the number of grammatical and rhetorical essentials treated to one hundred of the most important. Secondly, they have designed a most convenient table on the decimal system enabling teacher or pupil to turn at once, without consulting an index, to the pages which cover the point in question. Thirdly, they have appended to each rule a valuable set of examples, together with exercises which may be assigned to deficient pupils. Topics treated, with ten subdivisions each, are: "Completeness of Thought," "Unity," "Clearness," "Emphasis," "Grammar," "Diction," "Spelling," "Punctuation," "Miscellaneous." Teachers who find it helpful in their comments upon themes to give references to a handbook will want to know this new one.

The third teachers' book of the year is, strictly speaking, a book for grade teachers. The World Book Company has added to its "School Efficiency Monographs" a course of study in oral and written composition for elementary schools.<sup>2</sup> Thirty-eight pages discuss the pedagogy of composition; the remaining pages up to 178 contain a complete course of study. The book is listed here because of the invaluable help it may give junior high school teachers who are attempting to articulate their work with

<sup>1</sup> GARLAND GREEVER and EASLEY F. JONES. New York: Century Co., 1918. \$0.70.

<sup>2</sup> JOHN D. MAHONEY. *Standards in English*. Yonkers-on-the-Hudson: World Book Co., 1917. \$0.70.

that of the lower grades. Mr. Mahoney's course as outlined for seventh and eighth grades might be adopted almost entirely in the earlier junior high-school classes.

Similar in purpose and in character to Mahoney's *Standards in English* is Sheridan's *Speaking and Writing English*.<sup>1</sup> Indeed the two men originally worked together, as each graciously acknowledges in his introduction. Sheridan's book is far more than a course of study. It is a course in the pedagogy of English from Grades 1 to 8 inclusive. Part I, 50 pages, is full of helpful teaching ideas; Part II, 100 pages, is a course of study under the caption: "Assignment of Work by Grades"; an appendix presents interesting language games. The book is bound very attractively.

The fifth book in this series of teachers' helps is a collection of essays by Professor Johnson, of Vassar.<sup>2</sup> "If the appearance of textbooks on certain standardized, commercialized forms of expression will tend to continue the distinction between idealized and practicalized English, their production is to be deplored. Let us hope that it will be a force in the other direction, and that our schools and colleges are recognizing that they must teach an English which should be the best as well as the most effective medium of communication in the everyday social and commercial life of the communities around them." In this central theme Mr. Johnson sets forth a plea for a sensible training in vocational English, which for an American he regards as "the most essential tool in the world's workshop." This book of seven admirable essays should be in the working library of every teacher of English.

Several pamphlets and bulletins for teachers deserve a place on every teacher's desk. Superintendent E. E. Dodd, of Springfield, Missouri, has set forth the essence of his group-conversation plan in oral composition.<sup>3</sup> He calls his plan "A Course of Training to Develop Personality and Conversational Ability."

Professor L. N. Flint, of the Department of Journalism, the University of Kansas, in a bulletin of the University<sup>4</sup> describes the materials and methods of conducting a course of journalism suitable for senior high schools. He speaks of "Preparation of the Teacher," "Equipment," "Texts," "Books

<sup>1</sup> BERNARD M. SHERIDAN. *Speaking and Writing English*. Chicago: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1918.

<sup>2</sup> BURGESS JOHNSON. *The Well of English and the Bucket*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1917. \$1.25.

<sup>3</sup> E. E. DODD. *Personal Expression*. A pamphlet privately printed by the author. Springfield, Mo., 1917.

<sup>4</sup> L. N. FLINT. *Newspaper Writing in High Schools*. Lawrence, Kan.: Department of Journalism Press, 1917.

for Reading Assignments," etc. Half of the pamphlet is devoted to a careful outline of a course covering eighteen weeks. Miss Florence G. Bell has compiled 1917 entrance examination questions in grammar, composition, and literature of the leading institutions in America.<sup>1</sup> These the author has arranged very conveniently. For example, under "*Parsing*" she has grouped all questions bearing on this topic from all the colleges and universities. Miss Martha Wilson, of Minnesota School Libraries, has prepared an extremely useful guide of library books.<sup>2</sup> Miss Gertrude E. Johnson, of the Department of Public Speaking of the University of Wisconsin, has prepared a pamphlet of forty pages which contains suggestions and bibliography for directors of amateur dramatics.<sup>3</sup> Topics treated are: "Materials for Production," "Detail of Coaching," "Addresses of Play Publishers," "Graded Lists of Plays," and complete bibliographies of many subjects dealing with dramatics.

PLUMMER, MARY W. *Seven Joys of Reading*. A pamphlet. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1917.

CROSS, ALLEN and STATLER, NELLIE M. *Story-telling for Upper Grade Teachers*. Chicago: Row, Peterson & Co., 1918.

DAVIS, HENRY C., and SMITH, REED. *Debating for High Schools*. A pamphlet. Bulletin No. 60 of the University of South Carolina, Chapel Hill, 1917.

DILLON, CHARLES. *Journalism for High Schools*. New York: Lloyd Adams Noble, Publisher, 1918. \$1.00; class supplies, \$0.80.

This book is a complete manual for the teacher whose duty it is to manage a school paper. One hundred and twenty pages tell of the equipment, the staff, advertising, copy, exchanges, special activities, school news, editorial writing, and the like.

#### B. TEXTBOOKS IN COMPOSITION AND IN LANGUAGE, SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

HOLMES, HENRY W., and GALLAGHER, OSCAR C. *Composition and Rhetoric*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1917. Pp. 353.

This is a textbook for first- and second-year high-school classes; Parts I-III, "The Uses of Composition," "The Elements of Composition," "The

<sup>1</sup>FLORENCE G. BELL. *English Questions and Practice*. Cleveland: University Publishing Co.

<sup>2</sup>MARTHA WILSON. "Library Books for High Schools," *Bulletin*, 1917, No. 41, Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1918.

<sup>3</sup>GERTRUDE E. JOHNSON. *Choosing a Play*. New York, 958 University Ave.: H. W. Wilson Publishing Co. \$0.45.

"Principles of Composition," are intended for the first year; Part IV, about equal in length to the other three parts, is intended for the second year. Distinctive features of the book are: the constant use of illustrations and models from current literature; emphasis upon letter-writing and practical composition subjects; the intermingling of oral and written expression; a sensible condensation of grammar to a study of the sentence relations. One feature of special interest is the division of each chapter into lessons, 40 lessons covering the first three parts, 15 lessons Part IV. The writer has never seen a better series of assignments than are found as parts of these 55 lessons. The book is an altogether rich, varied, and attractive text.

WARD, C. H. *Sentence and Theme*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1917. \$1.00.

Ward has narrowed his field, as his title indicates; his textbook is very frankly a drill book on the sentence; the theme has a subordinate place. For nearly twenty years the author has been a successful teacher in a great college-preparatory school for boys who need to pass college-entrance examinations. Mr. Ward denounces all who believe that fluency may consciously be sought as a primary purpose; "accuracy first" rings through his text. No running off on tangents for Mr. Ward. Apparently he taboos modern tendencies such as oral composition, project teaching, social emphasis, the use of pictures, and the like. Ward rightly believes that the foundation of all good composition is the sentence—that and little more. His text is the best extant on this phase of English, fresh, invigorating, with attractive illustrations. The text is divided into 77 lessons taking the place of usual chapter divisions. The author accompanies his text with a valuable teachers' manual, *Pilot Book for Sentence and Theme*, and with a convenient set of drill sheets, *Punctuation Leaves*.

CANBY, H. S., and OPDYCKE, JOHN B. *Good English*. New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. xiii+390.

The authors have attempted to prepare a laboratory book for English classes which are using the events of their own everyday experience as materials with which to work. Moreover, they have wisely abandoned the old rhetorical divisions as categories of interest. Nevertheless, unity, emphasis, coherence, and the like, together with sentence and paragraph structure, are still studied in new guises; attention of pupils who study this text is directed in the various chapters to "How to Be Interesting," "How to Be Clear," "How to Be Convincing," "How to Be Thorough." The book

is divided into lessons, 47 all told, about one year's work. It is made attractive by 20 illustrations of the life of children by Maud and Misker Petersham. One may look with interest for ten minutes at "The Pass in Hockey," for example. "Models," "practice," "practical up-to-date-news," appear to be the key words. *Good English* is an A1 textbook for ninth-grade pupils.

BOLENIUS, EMMA M. *Every Day English*. New York: American Book Co., 1917.

This is the latest addition to the already extensive list of contributions Miss Bolenius has made, both in texts and in teachers' helps. Part I is "Tools of Language;" Part II, "Practical Composition." The author has attempted to distribute throughout the book drill in the pure mechanics of writing and speaking. She has added a very great wealth of suggested exercises and assignments.

The fact is that Miss Bolenius published her book just about one year too soon; she should have spent that time in arranging and systematizing and eliminating. This is the chief, perhaps the only serious, fault—a fault in common with several other composition books of the past two years; the attention of pupils appears to be violently yanked about through a puzzling labyrinth of confusingly unrelated activities.

There are 100 exercises, 77 criticisms (made by the pupils of their own work), 34 letters written by the pupils, 12 dramatizations, 60 talks, 5 long themes, 16 games, and 25 short themes scattered throughout the text. The book was published about six months too early to enter very extensively into the latest fad, pictures. The book has many good drawings illustrations, and diagrams.

THOMAS, CHARLES SWAIN, HOWE, WILL DAVID, and O'HAIR, ZELLA. *Composition and Rhetoric*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1918.

The revised edition of this well-known book places primary emphasis upon oral composition. It contains a few illustrations so attractive that the reader wishes that the authors had used more. To the reviewer it seems somewhat old fashioned to play up so strongly the four types of discourse. The appendix treatment of "Grammar" and "Common Errors in Grammar" and "Punctuation" can hardly be excelled.

THORNDIKE, ASHLEY H. *The Elements of Rhetoric and Composition*. New York: Century Co., 1918.

Professor Thorndike of Columbia has revised his text in collaboration with Miss Katherine Morse, of the New York Training School for Teachers.

A chapter in "Oral Composition" has been added. The text remains as it has always been, most thoroughly suited for upper high-school or college freshman classes.

BRUBACHER, A. E., and SNYDER, DOROTHY E. *High School English*. Book I. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1917.

Revised editions of the two books mentioned immediately above contain new chapters in oral composition. The present book, claiming credit for introducing the subject in 1910, now enlarges upon it. Illustrations in this book are reproductions of famous works of art. The authors retain the four forms of discourse as the fundamental organizing principle. Part II reduces the grammar of the sentence to one short chapter, and in the opinion of the writer somewhat too exhaustively treats the eight parts of speech in several succeeding chapters.

GALLAGHER, OSCAR C., and MOULTON, LEONARD M. *Practical Business English*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918. \$0.92.

Naturally the core of work outlined in this text is the business letter. Due attention is paid to the mechanics of letter-writing, but main interest lies in the skilful methods by which the authors direct the pupils' study to the content and the rhetorical form of effective letters. Nowhere has the writer seen greater ingenuity in motivating rhetorical principles, exposition, argumentation, description, and the like. The motive is to compose a letter that will "deliver the goods," literally and figuratively. The second distinguishing feature is the constant insistence upon oral training as valuable in business life. Sections on oral salesmanship and on reports are given prominence. Models abound; class exercises and new assignments number nearly two hundred. The book is beautifully printed and bound and is not bulky.

OPDYCKE, JOHN B., and DREW, CELIA. *Commercial Letters*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1918.

This book of 390 pages is filled from cover to cover with reproductions of typewritten letters which have actually been used successfully in the business world. The authors have reduced theory to a minimum. Rhetorical and grammatical matters are hardly touched upon. Examine models and practice, is the theory of this book.

LEWIS, WILLIAM D., and HOLMES, MABLE D. *Knowing and Using Words*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1917.



The authors say that they have endeavored "to make a contribution to the literature of one of the most baffling studies of the American School. The book is not so much a textbook to be learned as it is a laboratory manual to guide the learner in establishing a method for the mastery of the word basis of his spoken and written expression." There are seventy-five exercises for word-study. Teachers who believe in elaborate word drill will welcome this book of 125 pages, possibly to be used as supplementary to other composition texts. Even if a teacher cannot find room for *Knowing and Using Words* as a text, she should beyond question possess it as a desk book. In this connection the brief article by E. B. Osborn, in *Illustrated London News* of July 13, 1918, "Literature Cleared of Action," is worth reading. Osborn pleads for the elimination of "pulp-words" in favor of "the short, sharp diction of our fighting ancestors," for "words that sound and feel like blows."

KITTREDGE, GEORGE L., and FARLEY, FRANK F. *A Concise English Grammar*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1918.

This is a revised edition of the 1913 book of same title, adapted to the recommendations of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature.

SHACKFORD, MARTHA H., and JUDSON, MARGARET. *Composition-Rhetoric-Literature*. Chicago: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1917.

HITCHCOCK, ALFRED M. *Composition and Rhetoric*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1917.

These are recent editions of two well-known texts.

*English Note Book*. Compiled and arranged by MARJORIE H. NICOLSON. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1918.

Contains in form of perforated sheets, record blanks for reporting outside reading.

#### C. TEXTBOOKS IN LANGUAGE SUITABLE FOR UPPER GRADES AND FOR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Under this classification belong four 1917 and 1918 books of the same general nature as the Pearson and Kirchwey,<sup>1</sup> the O'Shea and Eichmann,<sup>2</sup> the Gowdy<sup>3</sup>, and the McFadden<sup>4</sup> series of 1915 and 1916. The first of

<sup>1</sup> H. C. PEARSON and MARY F. KIRCHWEY. *Essentials of English*. Second Book. New York: American Book Co., 1915.

<sup>2</sup> WILLIAM J. O'SHEA and A. C. EICHMANN. *Composition Book by Grades, Seventh and Eighth Years*. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1915.

<sup>3</sup> CHRISTINE GOWDY. *Lessons in English, Book III*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1915.

<sup>4</sup> EFFIE B. MCFADDEN. *McFadden Language Series, Grammar and Composition*. Chicago: Rand & McNally & Co., 1916.

these is the familiar *Reed and Kellogg* revised and modified by Arthur Lee<sup>1</sup>. Grammar is treated in Part I; composition in Part II.

Another book is the third of the "Aldine Series."<sup>2</sup> This attractive book makes common-sense statements of various grammatical and rhetorical principles, and makes these statements stand out, in heavy black type. The supreme pedagogical principle of this series is the effort to make pupils think their own thoughts and to communicate their own experiences.

A third upper-grade book seems to emphasize oral English somewhat more than the others. *Oral and Written English*<sup>3</sup> is frankly an attempt to embody minimum essentials, constructive studies by the pupils, many game devices, and the like. Notes to the teacher in the Appendix give helpful suggestions. For the third Aldine book the authors have prepared a 182-page teachers' manual,<sup>4</sup> consisting of very explicit help for teaching the text, lesson by lesson.

The fourth text book for upper grades is Book III of the new "Elson Series."<sup>5</sup> It contains one hundred and fifty lessons for each two years of work, lays emphasis on oral composition, uses minimum essentials, and has many group exercises. A most interesting feature is an attractive series of illustrations of boy and girl life by C. A. Briggs, the "When a feller needs a friend" cartoonist.

#### D. BOOKS OF LITERATURE AND ON LITERATURE

Seven books in the field of English and American literature have come to our desk. The first, edited by Roy Bennett Pace,<sup>6</sup> contains 438 pages of selections and extracts from English authors, Beowulf to Stevenson, and 64 pages of discriminating notes. It is intended for use with a text-book in the history of English literature. The author lays special stress upon the opportunity afforded of associating great pieces of criticism with the works criticized. The second, an elaborate volume of 427 pages, a thoroughgoing history of English literature,<sup>7</sup> organizes its nine chapters chronologically. Material within each chapter is organized under types of

<sup>1</sup> ARTHUR LEE. *Lessons in English, Book Two*. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1917.

<sup>2</sup> FRANK E. SPALDING, CATHERINE T. BRYCE and H. G. BUEHLER. *Aldine Third Language Book*. New York: Newson & Co., 1917.

<sup>3</sup> M. C. POTTER, H. JESCHKE and H. O. GILLET. *Oral and Written English, Book Two*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1917.

<sup>4</sup> *Manual for Teachers Using Third Language Book*. New York: Newson & Co., 1917.

<sup>5</sup> WILLIAM H. ELSON and GEORGE L. MARSH. *Good English, Oral and Written, Book Three*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1918.

<sup>6</sup> ROY BENNETT PACE. *Readings in English Literature*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1917.

<sup>7</sup> THOMAS E. RANKIN and WILFORD M. AIKEN. *English Literature*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1917.

literature. American, Australian, Canadian, Anglo-Indian, and South African authors are named, but not discussed in the book. The authors have curbed the tendency to indulge in useless biographical details. The third book in this classification also is meant to be used with an anthology of readings, for example, with *The Golden Treasury*. It aims, says its author,<sup>1</sup> to serve as a guide book for travelers through the field of literature. Extracts from earlier authors are included. Biography is reduced to a minimum. Chapters are arranged in convenient length; each chapter a lesson. Pictures and illustrations abound. The fourth book is an outgrowth of Edwin L. Miller's long experience in teaching and his wide acquaintance with literature.<sup>2</sup> He has endeavored to apportion attention to various authors on the basis of their importance for young people and their powers of arousing the interest of young people. "I am guided . . . in my choice of bait, not by my own taste, but by what I conceive to be the taste of the fish," says Mr. Miller. A total of 597 pages in a textbook is a large dose, especially if pupils are expected, as Mr. Miller's are, to read extensively in addition.

Two anthologies of American literature for high-school students were published in 1917. The first is an inexpensive yet attractive book called *American Literary Readings*.<sup>3</sup> Authors are grouped according to the geographical sections of the country, as well as chronologically. A very brief biographical sketch of each author is followed by extensive extracts from his work. The other anthology is far more pretentious in size and comprehensiveness; it is a veritable library in itself,<sup>4</sup> 875 large pages of small but very legible type. Biographical notes are exceedingly brief; literature extracts correspondingly long.

The last book of this series is a history of both English and American literature,<sup>5</sup> a combination and condensation of Long's two familiar books in this field, 557 pages.

#### E. BOOKS OF PATRIOTIC PROSE AND OTHER READING BOOKS

Six books of patriotic prose and poetry have recently appeared. Three of them, like their predecessor *Democracy of Today* by Christian Gauss

<sup>1</sup> HERBERT BATES. *English Literature*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1918.

<sup>2</sup> EDWIN L. MILLER. *English Literature: A Handbook for Schools and Readers*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1917.

<sup>3</sup> LEONIDAS W. PAYNE. *American Literary Readings*. Chicago: Rand, McNally Co., 1917.

<sup>4</sup> A. G. NEWCOMER, ALICE E. ANDREWS and H. J. HALL. *Three Centuries of American Prose and Poetry*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1917.

<sup>5</sup> WILLIAM J. LONG. *Outlines of English and American Literature*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1917.

1917, are compilations primarily of President Wilson's addresses upon war topics. No editor is named for the Riverside edition.<sup>1</sup> The second,<sup>2</sup> edited by Arthur R. Leonard, contains an excellent introduction and good notes; it is likewise confined to Mr. Wilson's addresses. The third<sup>3</sup> is a much longer book, containing many addresses of the President on various topics since 1913. The fourth book would suit most admirably for English classes in the junior high school. Mr. and Mrs. Powell have compiled *The Spirit of Democracy*,<sup>4</sup> a book made up almost equally of verse and of prose, all from the literature of the Allies since 1914. Thirty-two portraits of allied civil and military leaders are admirably reproduced. The literature presented has rich variety and of course has compelling timeliness. Another text of similar nature is Long's<sup>5</sup> compilation of patriotic prose. All our greatest statesmen and leaders from Captian John Smith to President Wilson are represented, some of them several times. Extracts given are short, rarely over two or three pages. The editor says that he wishes "to spread before the eyes of youth a record of words and deeds of Americans who did not always reckon the cost when they wrought with tongue, pen or good right arm to build and keep a government that is more free and generous than anything ever yet seen in the world." The sixth of these books of patriotic prose is edited by the secretary of the Executive Committee of Patriotic Societies.<sup>6</sup> In addition to the leading addresses of Mr. Wilson and many of his cabinet, the book contains three addresses by M. René Viviani, together with addresses of Italian, Russian, English, and Belgian allies. Even Japan is represented. This book would be especially suited for study in a twelfth-grade class.

McSPADDEN, J. WALKER. *The Book of Holidays*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1917.

"We Americans are so accustomed to taking our holidays as a matter of course—so treating them merely as rest and play days—that we constantly run the risk of losing sight of their significance." *The Book of Holidays*, in a most attractive essay style easily read by boys and girls,

<sup>1</sup> *Liberty, Peace and Justice*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918. Pp.127.

<sup>2</sup> ARTHUR R. LEONARD (Editor). *War Addresses of Woodrow Wilson*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1918. Pp. 129.

<sup>3</sup> GEORGE M. HARPER (Editor). *President Wilson's Addresses*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1918. Pp. 311.

<sup>4</sup> LYMAN P. and GERTRUDE E. POWELL (Editors). *The Spirit of Democracy*. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co., 1918. Pp 272.

<sup>5</sup> AUGUSTUS WHITE LONG. *American Patriotic Prose*. With notes and biographies. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1917. Pp. 389.

<sup>6</sup> WILLIAM M. LEWIS (Editor). *The Voices of Our Leaders*. New York: Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge, Inc., 1918.

tells of the origins, customs, and significance of twenty of our American holidays. The book contains a few attractive illustrations. It is distinctly suitable for junior high-school and for upper-grade reading.

HAGEDORN, HERMAN. *Where Do You Stand?* New York: Macmillan, 1918.

A ringing appeal to Americans of German origin; suitable for outside reading.

RIIS, JACOB A. *The Making of An American.* New York: Macmillan, 1918.

An attractive new edition of a book that ought to appear on every home reading list.

*The Tragedy of Macbeth.* CHARLTON M. LEWIS, editor. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1918.

*Plutarch's Lives.* EDWIN GINN, editor. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1918.

HOPKINSON, LESLIE W. *Greek Leaders.* WILLIAM S. FERGUSON, editor. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918.

Home reading appropriate in English classes while they are studying Greek history in their history classes.

*Tom Brown's School Days.* H. C. BRADY, editor. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1918. Attractively illustrated for seventh- and eighth-grade boys.

FRANCIS PARKMAN. *The Oregon Trail.* HENRY G. PAUL, editor. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1918.

*The Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin.* JULIAN W. ABERNEHTY, editor. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1918.

LAW, FREDERICK H. *Modern Short Stories.* New York: Century Co., 1918.

Twenty-two short stories for careful reading in a high-school class, "read" says the author, not "studied." "Read in the expectation of having a good time." A most attractive book in content and in appearance.

*Atlantic Classics.* Second Series. CHARLES SWAIN THOMAS, editor. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1918.

*Anthology of Magazine Verse for 1917.* WILLIAM S. BRAITHWAITE, editor. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co., 1917.

*Letters from Many Pens.* MARGARET COULT, editor. New York: Macmillan, 1917.

A compilation of 144 letters, written by literary artists, grouped under: "Chat about Home Life," "Young People to Their Elders," "Grown People to Children," "To Strangers," "Stirring Events," "Sketches from Many Lands," "Quacks and Cranks," "About People and Books," "Counsel and Advice," and "Other Times: Other Manners."

## II. BOOK NOTES AND REVIEWS

BURCH, HENRY REED, and PATTERSON, S. HOWARD. *American Social Problems*. New York: Macmillan, 1918. Pp. ix+381.

The secondary title to this book, "An Introduction to the Study of Society," leads to the following statement from the preface regarding the purpose of the volume: "This book has grown out of the attempt to socialize one phase of secondary education and to bring it into harmony with present-day demands. It is designed to meet the needs of an elementary course in the study of society—especially of American society."

It is evident that the treatment is evolutionary and historical for the purpose of emphasizing the idea of growth and development in social institutions.

The introductory chapter sketches the changing social ideals, the meaning of and study of society and its relation to other social studies.

Chapters II-IV, "A Great Discovery," "The Life of the Past," and "The Past in the Present," may be grouped as giving the background of the principles of social growth and development. Beginning with a discussion of the theory of evolution, the following chapters present theoretical and concrete material to illustrate (1) the idea of development in the life of primitive man and his achievements, (2) the growth and force of tradition, folkways, imitation, and the crowd. Organization into groups is emphasized as an important social force.

Following this survey of social background is a chapter on "The Influence of Environment," in which are taken up the physiographic and climatic elements as affecting group life, government, and culture. The chapter concludes with a brief discussion on physical, industrial, and human conservation.

The next following chapters, "The History of the Family," "The Development of the State," "The Problem of Population," "The American People," "The Problem of Immigration," "The American Race Problem," and "The Problem of the City," can be characterized as setting forth the development of group life and some of its direct and apparent problems. The family as the primary social institution is succeeded by the state as the next step in protecting and preserving group life. The relation of the state to war, slavery, the growth of law, and the idea of property is included. A discussion of population, its distribution, and the meaning and importance of vital statistics brings out such problems as are the results of population growth and changes.

The presentation of American problems regarding population is begun by a historical review of colonial settlement, the following growth and expansion, and a description of the early nineteenth-century immigration. The immigration of the latter part of the nineteenth century with its attendant social, economic, and political problems is the subject of a separate chapter. Then follows a chapter treating our race problems regarding the Negro and the Indian.

The chapter on "The Problem of the City" discusses, after a brief sketch of the origin and causes of cities, such topics as city-planning, housing conditions, public health, social conditions, contrast between city and country.

The important topic the Industrial Revolution and its results is given two chapters. "The Rise of Industry" traces the development of economic life from the hunting and fishing to the industrial stage with its factory system. "The Social Effects of Industry" treats child labor, women in industry, and occupations of risk, emphasizing the social effects of these phases in our economic life, and concludes with a description of two proposed remedies: social insurance and compulsory state insurance.

Preceding the later chapters on special problems of group life, Chapter XV, "The Problem of Adjustment," presents a general discussion of existing maladjustments and some methods for effecting better conditions. The organization of capital and labor, changes in taxation, and changes in the distribution of wealth through profit-sharing, single tax, and socialism are given as proposed schemes to bring about better adjustment.

The more complex and involved problems of group life, their causes, results, and the remedies suggested are discussed in the following chapters, the titles of which are self-explanatory: "The Problem of Poverty," "The Organization of Charity," "The Problem of Crime," "The Treatment of Crime," "Defectives in Society," "The Problem of Prohibition," "The Problem of Divorce."

Chapter XXIII, "The Evolution of the School," presents a historical survey of the school from primitive times through the Greek and Roman world, the Middle Ages, the Renaissance, to the development of national systems in Europe and the United States. There is a discussion of recent tendencies in education to bring the schools into harmony with social demands. The chapter closes with emphasis on education as a means of social progress.

The concluding chapter, "Moral Progress," traces the development of religious ideas from the beliefs of primitive peoples, through the early



group religions to the church as a social organization. The evolution of morality is pictured as beginning with the "taboo" as a necessary element in group life. Discrimination and compromise, protest against group domination, and world-wide humanitarianism are then given as successive stages in moral development. The closing paragraphs are devoted to a statement of the great social problem, namely, the adjustment of individual and social interests, and the part that altruism, intelligence, and the church must have in the solution of the problem.

Each chapter is followed by a liberal list of "Questions for Discussion," "Topics for Special Report," and "References." The references given deal with advanced material, and, should they be given to high-school students, would necessitate careful direction and guidance in order to insure comprehension. A few references have definite pages given. The book has sixteen full-page illustrations and is indexed.

The text could be made richer by further use of concrete, illustrative material, and by more liberal use of definite page references to, and directions for, getting such material.

The arrangement of the chapters may not meet with universal approval. In such case it will not endanger continuity of treatment for the teacher to change the order to suit his or her individual views. The book is a valuable outline for a course in social problems provided the teacher has or can get the viewpoint and background, and has the supplementary material to enrich, illustrate, and clarify the statements of general principles.

HIGH SCHOOL, ROCK ISLAND, ILL.

ARNOLD LAU

HART, JOSEPH KINMONT. *Democracy in Education. A Social Interpretation of the History of Education.* New York: Century Co., 1918. Pp. ix+418.

The present is witnessing the rise of an acute awareness that education in a democracy is still a problem. This intensified consciousness of the problematical nature of education is spreading and infecting all peoples who are at this juncture in human affairs renewing their allegiance to democratic hopes and ideals. We are at the beginning or in the midst of all kinds of efforts to analyze the problem and to investigate the conditions of its progressive solution. Any effort made which will shed light upon important phases of this outstanding problem of democratic civilization naturally constitutes an essential element in that most youthful among scientific efforts, the science of education.

*Democracy in Education* is, as its subtitle indicates, "a social interpretation of the history of education." It is a somewhat dramatic presentation

of the history of education "so interpreted that the *actual gains* which democracy has made in the past, and the *lasting problems* which still face democracy, will stand out clearly in the consciousness of the democratic citizen, the one aspect of the subject for his cheer, the other to deepen his sense of responsibility." Whether the author achieves these results in the case of such as are profoundly in earnest about discovering how to make education perform its high office in a democracy in the state of becoming will depend upon the quantity and quality of critical intelligence which is brought to bear on the reading of this portrayal of the history of education. The nature of the writer's effort and the purpose of the undertaking are perhaps the most significant aspects of the work. Wherever these purposes have not been achieved adequately, others must contribute and carry on to more fruitful outcomes for educational planning and statesmanship. However, one who is at all familiar with the history of mankind will find the author's account to be a most illuminating and stimulating contribution to his thinking about, and understanding of, the problems which face us in the efforts to train and prepare youth for loyal and constructive participation in that kind of social life for which the world must be made a safe place.

To be sure, the book does not present an encyclopedic array of the *facts* of the history of education. It rather takes up a consideration of the various chief educational movements of the ages, looking at them as social experiments, noting the social and psychological conditions under which they were undertaken, and then takes the measure of the results achieved and how these results have conditioned the present status of educational striving. The work possesses the fine quality of a scientific attitude and method of procedure, therefore, it does not profess finality. It proceeds by stating what the situation was, the problem faced, what was proposed as solutions, how the solutions were applied and with what results—all done in the spirit of "see for yourself." There is an appendix containing references for each chapter (only two usually) which the student may consult for materials with which to assist himself in checking up.

*Democracy in Education* is to the history of education something like what Adams' *Civilization during the Middle Ages* is to the history of the Middle Ages. It is more, in that it attempts to bring the teachings of history to bear upon the definition and illumination of present uncertainties. Therefore, it should prove to be a most valuable book for use in courses in the history of education wherever that discipline has not foundered in the spiritless quagmire of fruitless academic subject matter

which students are required to flounder in, chart, or outline, learn, recite, and pass examinations on. Better still, perhaps, it forms a distinct contribution to the sociology of education because of its sociological and psychological treatment of historical materials pertinent to the analysis and understanding of present insistent problems in education.

It is the function of a review to condense and state succinctly the essence of the work reviewed, this review will necessarily not be true to type. The nature of the problem attacked in this book does not lend itself to summary treatment or statement. Moreover, the underlying thesis of the work is not of the kind that can be stated briefly and be sensed from a single reading of the brief. The value of the book will not be achieved or appropriated by merely knowing it and what it is about. It is dealing with a line of constructive thinking in which one must participate if he is to have the right to know about it. Hence, one needs to follow the line of treatment by the author if he is to form any intelligible opinion about the worth of such a thought-venture. It is very readable, and at points sets forth historical situations with crystalline clearness in an exalted style. It deals sympathetically, but fearlessly, with the past in the spirit of great hopes for the future.

If one is too timid to be scientific; if one is giving lip service only to the ideal of democracy and does not genuinely believe in the possibilities of science and democracy; if one desires only to *know about* the relation of the history of education to the historical unfoldment of democracy; if one is interested in merely improving or patching up our present educational machinery and attitudes, one need not spend the time to read this book. On the other hand, all those who are eager to prosecute well that initial task in a scientific venture of getting the problem at issue fruitfully defined and located cannot afford to deny themselves the suggestiveness and aid offered by this fresh, vigorous, and stimulating treatment of the history of education which in an incisive fashion clears away the historical irrelevancies and rubbish of antiquated materials, processes, and attitudes so that our present problems can be seen steadily and attacked with all the accumulating resources of scientific procedure, with reasonable justification for the hope that our co-operative efforts may yield a larger measure of those educational results which expanding democracy necessitates. Can history be made to yield at least a modicum of enlightenment for the present and future? Do experience and experiment and their results possess any significance for planning for the future? Or must each age commence *de novo*? Who is there who does not believe that man can learn from his experience

when it is interpreted? This book is a constructive attempt to realize in a field of great human endeavor whatever of capital the past has to offer.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

C. L. CLARKE

AYRES, MAY, WILLIAMS, JESSE F., and WOOD, THOMAS D. *Healthful Schools*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918. Pp. x+292. \$1.50.

This book represents an attempt to treat the question of school hygiene as a unified whole rather than as an unrelated group of individual topics bearing on the general subject. The authors have set forth what they feel a school administrator needs to know in order to safeguard the health of the children under his care.

In all, the book contains fourteen chapters on such subjects as: "Choosing the Schoolhouse Site," "The School Building," "Rooms in the School Building," "Classroom Equipment," "Lighting," "Water Supply," "Toilets," "Heating and Ventilation," "Protecting Schoolhouses from Fire," "Keeping the Schoolhouse Clean," "Medical Inspection," "Physical Training and Recreation," "Exceptional Children," and "School Feeding."

At the end of each chapter there are questions for study and discussion and selected references. These questions and references should prove helpful in case the book is used as a textbook. Furthermore, besides these pedagogical aids, there are throughout the book a number of excellent illustrations, diagrams, summaries, and sketches.

The volume is one of the most recent ones in the "Riverside Textbook Edition" edited by Professor Cubberley. It should prove useful as a textbook in school hygiene in colleges and normal schools, as well as furnish a basis for discussion by teachers, supervisors, and superintendents.

NOBLE, S. G. *Forty Years of the Public Schools in Mississippi with Special Reference to the Education of the Negro*. Teachers' College, Columbia University Contributions to Education, No. 94. New York: Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1918. Pp. iv+142.

In his dissertation Dr. Noble has made an effort to answer the following questions: "Do southern people believe that the Negro can and should be educated? What facilities have been provided for this purpose? Is the trend of public sentiment toward providing more adequate means for his education? Is the Negro child being discriminated against in the distribution of school funds? Does the progress of the race in the past fifty years justify the efforts that have been put forth to educate the Negro?"

To answer the foregoing questions the author has made a careful study of public education in one typical southern state, Mississippi, during the forty years following 1870. Social and economic progress in Mississippi during these forty years receives much consideration. Other topics treated are: Education during the reconstruction; the status of the teaching body; distribution of the common school fund; the curriculum; public sentiment in regard to the education of the Negro since 1886; and influence of education upon the life of the Negro.

After a careful and exhaustive treatment of the foregoing topics the author summarizes his finding under the four general conclusions. Briefly stated these are:

1. In an agricultural state so sparsely settled as Mississippi the burden of maintaining separate schools for the two races has been extremely heavy.

2. Public sentiment in regard to the education of the Negro has been divided.

3. On account of the financial depression of the state, rapid educational progress was retarded until after 1900.

Lack of progress in education is paralleled by a lack of progress in the social and economic life of the Negro.

MADDOX, W. A. *The Free School Idea in Virginia Before the Civil War. A Phase of Political and Social Evolution.* Teachers' College, Columbia University Contributions to Education, No. 93. New York: Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1918. Pp. vi+225.

It must be encouraging to the few workers in the field of American educational history to see such a study as Dr. Maddox's come to the light of day. For it is only through studies made with the painstaking care evidenced in this one that reliable facts relative to the history of education in the United States will ever be attained. The nineteen pages of bibliography cited by the author are some indication of the exhaustive treatment of the subject of his dissertation. His work throughout gives evidence of scholastic judgment and scientific procedure both in the search for, and in the treatment of, his material. In brief, the monograph tells the story of Virginia's educational transition from colony to commonwealth. The twelve chapters follow each other chronologically. The common school revival of 1840-60 is discussed in some detail. Virginia's part in this widespread popular movement for public education is told in great detail. The final chapter on "A Summary of Common School Progress Before the Civil War"

is an excellent statement of the retarding influences in common-school development in Virginia as well as the entire South. The monograph is a splendid example of an excellent piece of historical production scientifically done.

### III. CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### BOOKS RELATING TO RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

- BASHFORD, JAMES W. *The Oregon Missions*. Abingdon Press, New York. 1918. Pp. 311. \$1.25.
- BRIGHTMAN, EDGAR SHEFFIELD. *The Sources of the Hexateuch*. Abingdon Press. New York. Pp. 395. \$3.00. (1918.)
- COPE, HENRY FREDERICK. *Religious Education in the Church*. Charles Scribners' Sons. 1918. Pp. 274. \$1.25.
- HORNE, HERMAN HARRELL. *Jesus—Our Standard*. Abingdon Press. New York. 1918. Pp. 307. \$1.25.
- SHELDON, HENRY C. *The Mystery Religions and the New Testament*. Abingdon Press. New York. 1918. Pp. 155. \$0.50.
- SHERMAN, ELLEN BURNS. *On the Manuscripts of God*. Abingdon Press. New York. 1918. Pp. 184. \$1.00.
- WARDLE, ADDIE GRACE. *History of the Sunday School Movement in the Methodist Episcopal Church*. The Methodist Book Concern. New York. 1918. Pp. 232. \$1.50.
- WARFIELD, BENJAMIN B. *Counterfeit Miracles*. Charles Scribners' Sons. 1918. Pp. 327. \$2.00.

